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A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English

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PREFACE

My object in writing this book has been to provide information for those who are studying English as a foreign language. The book can be used for reference purposes by those who are no longer attending school or college, and as a textbook for more systematic study by those who are still attending classes. For the benefit of those who use it for reference purposes, a full index has been supplied.

The book is not designed as a complete grammar of the traditional kind. It does not, for example, set out and describe the various classes of nouns and pronouns. It is not concerned with accidence. Analysis is used only when this is helpful for synthesis, or sentence building. There is nothing on parsing in this book.

Much attention has been paid during recent years to the selection of vocabulary for use in courses for those learning English as a foreign language. Comparatively little attention has been paid to the patterns or structures of the language. A knowledge of how to put words together is as important as, perhaps more important than, a knowledge of their meanings. The most important patterns are those for the verbs. Unless the learner becomes familiar with these he will be unable to use his vocabulary. He may suppose that because he has heard and seen 'I intend (want, propose) to come', he may say or write 'I suggest to come', that because he has heard or seen 'Please tell me the meaning', 'Please show me the way', he can say or write 'Please explain me this sentence'. Because 'He began talking about the weather' means about the same as 'He began to talk about the weather', the learner may suppose, wrongly, of course, that 'He stopped talking about the weather' means the same as 'He stopped to talk about the weather'.

It is important, too, that the student, when he learns a noun or adjective, should become familiar with the patterns in which that noun or adjective is normally used. When he learns such

adjectives as *kind* and *thoughtful*, for example, he should learn to use them in such sentence patterns as 'It was kind (thoughtful) of you to get tea ready for me' or 'How kind (thoughtful) of you to get tea ready for me!' When he learns the meanings of the adjective *anxious*, he should also learn its patterns: 'anxious about his son's health', 'anxious for news', 'anxious (= eager) to start'.

The Index of Words is not intended as a guide to all the patterns in which the verbs, nouns, adjectives, and pronouns occurring in it can be used. The learner is advised to make his own collection. He will do well, while he is reading, to enter on record cards, or in a loose-leaf notebook, any examples of patterns of common words that are likely to be useful to him when he comes to write English. For the verb *succeed*, for example, he might note such examples as 'They succeeded in their attempt' or 'They succeeded in climbing Mt. Everest' (VP 24). For the noun *intention* he might note the example: 'He has no intention of going' (NP 2). With this he might place the example: 'It is not his intention to go' (VP 22B) so that he will not confuse the noun and the verb pattern. If he also has an example of the verb *intend*, for example, 'He does not intend to go' (VP 2), he has full references available when he needs to write. A good dictionary will usually provide information on patterns, but the making of one's own collection is an excellent way of fixing usages in the memory.

The learner who wishes to speak and write English is concerned with 'grammatical' correctness. He should also be concerned with being idiomatic, with using an English style that will not strike the listener or reader as being artificial or stiff. Part Five of this book approaches this problem from a new angle. Instead of dealing with such auxiliary and modal verbs as *be*, *have*, *can-could*, *will-would*, *shall-should*, *may-might*, *must*, *ought* one by one and describing their functions, the situation is taken as the starting-point. The concept of obligation can be expressed by the use of such words as *necessity*, *necessary*, *compulsion*, *compulsory*, *obligation*, *obligatory*. (See the examples in § 114 a.) But except in formal style these are words that an Englishman is unlikely to use. He will prefer constructions with *have to* (or *have got to*),

must, *ought*, or *should*. These words, however, are often more difficult for the foreign learner to use correctly than the more formal words. Some of the verbs are defective. Others are used in irregular structures. The beginner is tempted to use the formal words because their patterns are easier than those for the words used in the informal or colloquial style. By grouping together the various ways in which such concepts as obligation and necessity, permission, possibility, achievement, wishes, and hopes can be expressed, I have tried to help the learner to become familiar with the most frequently used ways of expressing these concepts.

The approach to the problems of time and tense has been made from the same angle. Instead of taking the tenses one by one and describing their uses, I have taken time as the starting-point. Here is an aspect of time, or here is a situation or state. Which tense or tenses can be used here? Or what tense equivalents are available and perhaps preferable?

It is a sound principle not to present the learner with specimens of incorrect English and require him to point out and correct the errors. Such a procedure in the form of exercises is undoubtedly harmful. In this book I have occasionally given specimens of incorrect usage, but only when these are errors that I know, from wide experience, to be frequent. Such specimens, whenever they occur, are marked by the warning sign ⚠. The sign is occasionally used to indicate not a grammatically incorrect sentence but a sentence that is not quite idiomatic, a sentence for which there is a preferable alternative. Thus the sentence 'A map is on the wall' is not wrong. But the sentence 'There is a map on the wall' is preferable. If the learner is taught to avoid 'A map is on the wall', even though it is defensible, he is less likely to compose the sentence 'Four windows are in this room', which is indefensible.

In a small number of sections, where word order may vary according to stress, and where there is reference to strong and weak forms, phonetic transcriptions with stress marks have been used. A list of phonetic symbols is given on pages x–xi.

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I have found much useful information in the pages of the British Council's periodical *English Language Teaching* and in *English Studies* (Amsterdam). Mr. W. S. Allen's exposition of English tense usage, especially the Future Tense equivalents, in his *Living English Structure*, has been of great help.

My work on Sentence Patterns began in the period between the two world wars when I was associated with Dr. H. E. Palmer in the work of the Institute for Research in English Teaching at the Department of Education in Tokyo. I owe much to Dr. Palmer's inspiring leadership during those years. We were not always in agreement and the verb patterns set out in this volume (and in *An Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*) differ in some respects (apart from order) from the patterns set out in Dr. Palmer's *Grammar of English Words*. But although we could not always see eye to eye, my own work owes much to his initiative and enthusiasm.

ABBREVIATIONS

(As used in the Tables)

A.F.	anomalous finite.
A.P.	adverbial particle.
prep.	preposition.
D.O.	direct object.
I.O.	indirect object.
A. of F.	adverb(ial) of frequency.
A. of P. or D.	adverb(ial) of place or direction.
A. of T.	adverb(ial) of time.
AP (1, etc.)	adjective pattern.
NP (1, etc.)	noun pattern.
VP (1, etc.)	verb pattern.
FPA	front-position adverb(ial).
MPA	mid-position adverb(ial).
EPA	end-position adverb(ial).
(pro)noun	noun or pronoun.

The sign ♤ is used to indicate that the sentence that follows is either incorrect or unidiomatic.

KEY TO PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTIONS

PHONETIC SYMBOL	ORDINARY SPELLING	PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION
a:	f*a*ther	ˈfa:ðə*
a	b*a*d	bad
ai	cr*y*	krai
au	ho*w*	hau
b	*b*ack	bak
d	*d*ay	dei
ð	*th*en	ðen
e	w*e*t	wet
eə	h*air*	heə*
ei	d*ay*	dei
ə:	b*ir*d	bə:d
ə	*a*go, ladd*er*	əˈgou, ˈladə*
f	*f*ull, *ph*ysics	ful, ˈfiziks
g	*g*et	get
h	*h*ot, *wh*o	hot, hu:
i	s*i*t	sit
i:	m*ee*t	mi:t
iə	h*ere*	hiə*
j	*y*es	jes
k	*c*old, *k*ill	kould, kil
l	*l*ike, fi*ll*	laik, fil
m	*m*ake	meik
n	*n*ot	not
ŋ	lo*ng*	loŋ
ŋg	lo*ng*er	ˈloŋgə*
o	h*o*t	hot
o:	s*aw*	so:

oə	m*ore*	moə*
oi	b*oy*	boi
ou	s*o*, s*ow*, s*ew*	sou
p	*p*ut	put
r	*r*ed	red
s	*s*it, thi*s*	sit, ðis
ʃ	*sh*ow, wi*sh*	ʃou, wiʃ
t	*t*in, hi*t*	tin, hit
θ	*th*in	θin
u:	b*oo*t	bu:t
u	g*oo*d, p*u*t	gud, put
uə	s*ure*	ʃuə*
v	*v*ery	ˈveri
ʌ	c*u*p	kʌp
w	*w*et	wet
z	*z*ero, hi*s*	ˈziərou, hiz
ʒ	plea*s*ure	ˈpleʒə*

The asterisk (*) indicates possible *r*-linking. *Father* is transcribed [ˈfa:ðə*]. When a word that begins with a consonant sound follows, the pronunciation is [ˈfa:ðə]. When a word that begins with a vowel sound follows immediately, the pronunciation is [ˈfa:ðər], as in 'the father of these children' [ðə ˈfa:ðər əv ði:z ˈtʃildrən].

The stress mark (ˈ) precedes the syllable on which the stress is placed.

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PART I

Verbs and Verb Patterns

DEFINITIONS

§ **1 a.** Verbs are either non-finites or finites. The non-finites are the infinitives, present and perfect, the participles, present and past, and the gerund (also called the verbal noun). The finites are those parts of the verb other than the non-finites. Thus the non-finites of the verb *be* are: (*to*) *be*, (*to*) *have been*, *being*, and *been*. The finites of the verb *be* are *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*.

The infinitives are used both with and without *to*. E.g. I want *to go*. I ought *to have gone*. I can *go*. I could *have gone*. These two kinds of infinitive are distinguished by the use of the terms '*to*-infinitive' (with *to*) and 'bare infinitive' (without *to*).

The present participle and the gerund are the same in form. The boys are *swimming* (present participle). The boys enjoy *swimming* (gerund).

§ **1 b.** The term AUXILIARY VERB (or HELPING VERB) is applied to those verbs that are used in the formation of the tenses. The finites of *be* are auxiliary when they are used to form the progressive (or continuous) tenses. E.g. They *are* reading. The boys *were* playing football. They are auxiliary when used to form the passive voice. E.g. The soldier *was* wounded. The boxes *were* opened. The finites of *have* are auxiliary when used to form the perfect tenses. E.g. He *has* left. They *have* gone. They *had* finished their work. *Will* and *shall* can be described as auxiliary when they are used to form the future tenses. E.g. Tomorrow *will* be Monday. I *shall* be thirty next month.

§ **1 c.** The term DEFECTIVE VERB is used of those verbs of which

some parts are lacking. Thus *must* has neither infinitive nor participles. *Will, shall, can, may,* and *ought* are defective verbs.

§ **1 d.** The term IRREGULAR VERB is often used of those verbs that are not regularly inflected. E.g. *go, went, gone*; *show, showed, shown*; *begin, began, begun*; *take, took, taken.*

§ **1 e.** The term ANOMALOUS FINITE (abbreviated to A.F. in tables and patterns) is used of the 24 finites set out in the table below, at the right-hand side.

	Non-finite Forms			*Finite Forms*	
	Infinitive	*Present Participle*	*Past Participle*	*Present Tense*	*Past Tense*
1	be	being	been	am, is, are	was, were
2	have	having	had	have, has	had
3	do	doing	done	do, does	did
4	—	—	—	shall	should
5	—	—	—	will	would
6	—	—	—	can	could
7	—	—	—	may	might
8	—	—	—	must	—
9	—	—	—	ought	—
10	—	—	—	need	—
11	—	—	—	dare	—
12	—	—	—	—	used

The adjective *anomalous* means 'irregular'. The verbs in the table are irregular in the way in which such verbs as *go* and *show* are irregular. But these 24 finites are different from all other finites because they have special functions. The most obvious difference is that they can be used joined to the contracted form of *not*. E.g. *isn't, wasn't, haven't, don't, didn't, shouldn't, couldn't, oughtn't.* The term ANOMALOUS FINITE is restricted to those finite verbs that combine with *not* in this way, and is used of these finites only when they are capable of being contracted with *not* in this way. Thus, *have* is anomalous in: 'I haven't finished'; 'I haven't time to do it now.' But *have* is not anomalous in: 'I have breakfast at seven o'clock.' (In this sentence *have* is an ordinary verb. Here it means 'take' or 'eat'. The negative is *don't have*. See § 4 d below.)

The 24 anomalous finites are not always auxiliary. The finites of *be* are not auxiliary in: She *is* a teacher. They *are*n't busy. They *were* red. The finites of *have* are not auxiliary in: *Have* you any money? She *has* two brothers. They *had* a good holiday. I *have*n't time.

The term ANOMALOUS FINITE is useful when we wish to distinguish these 24 verbs (1) from auxiliary verbs (because *be* and *have* are not always auxiliary), (2) from irregular verbs (because this term is used loosely and widely), and (3) from defective verbs (because *be*, *do*, and *have* are not defective).

If a less unfamiliar term for these 24 finites is preferred, the term 'special finites' (or, for beginners, 'the 24 friends of *not*') may be used.

FUNCTIONS OF THE ANOMALOUS FINITES

§ **2 a.** These 24 finites have many functions. These can be divided into two main classes.

First, they are important as structural words. They are needed in the formation of the negative and interrogative. They are used to avoid repetition, e.g. in short answers and in disjunctive (or 'tag') questions. They are needed for the emphatic affirmative. They affect the position of certain adverbs.

Secondly, they are used to form certain moods for which English has no inflected verb forms. When used in this way they may be termed MODAL VERBS or MODAL AUXILIARIES. (*Modal* is the adjective that corresponds to *mode*, another word for *mood*.) The uses of these 24 finites for these purposes are dealt with in those sections of this book that describe how to express such concepts as ability (e.g. with *can*, *could*), possibility (e.g. with *may*, *might*), permission (e.g. with *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*), and obligation (e.g. with *must*, *ought to*, *have to*). See §§ 109–24.

The Formation of the Negative

§ **2 b.** A finite verb is made negative by the addition of *not*. In modern English, however, only the 24 anomalous finites are made

negative by the simple addition of *not* after them. Other finite verbs are made negative with the help of the auxiliary verb *do.*

They *ought not* to go tomorrow.
We *dare not* leave him alone.

He wants it, (*He* does *want it*), *He does not want it.*
He wanted it, (*He* did *want it*), *He did not want it.*
They went there, (*They* did *go there*), *They did not go there.*

In spoken English, and in informal written English (e.g. social correspondence), the contracted negative forms are used: *isn't*, *aren't*, *didn't*, *wouldn't*, *use(d)n't.*

Note. The use of *not* with finites other than the anomalous finites was usual in older English (e.g. Shakespeare, the Authorized Version of the Bible) but is not found in modern English.

The Formation of the Interrogative

§ 2 c. The interrogative is formed by the inversion of the subject and the finite verb, except when the subject is an interrogative pronoun. (*Who came?* not ♠ *Did who come?*) Only the 24 anomalous finites are, in modern English, inverted with the subject in this way.

They are ready. Are they ready?
He can swim. Can he swim?

With other finites the auxiliary verb *do* is needed.

They went away. (*They* did *go away.*) *Did they go away?*
He likes it. (*He* does *like it.*) *Does he like it?*

Went you and similar examples of a subject preceded by a non-anomalous finite are archaic.

The Interrogative-Negative

§ 2 d. This is formed by placing *not* after the subject in formal

written style, or, in informal written style, and almost always in spoken English, by the use of the contracted negative forms.

Does he want it? (*Does he not want it?*) *Doesn't he want it?*
Did they go? (*Did they not go?*) *Didn't they go?*

Other Examples of Inversion

§ 2 e. Inversion of the subject and finite verb (always one of the 24 anomalous finites) occurs after a front-position negative (including such semi-negatives as *hardly*, *scarcely*, *little*).

Little did they know that . . . (They little knew that . . .)
In no other way can the matter be explained. (The matter can be explained in no other way.)
Hardly had we started when it began to rain. (We had hardly started when it began to rain.)

Avoidance of Repetition

§ 2 f. The 24 anomalous finites are used to avoid repetition.

They are used in short answers to questions.

Did you find it? Yes, I did (= found it).
Can you do it alone? Yes, I think I can (= can do it alone).
Who broke the window? Tom did (= broke the window).
Who wants to come with me? All of us do (= want to go with you).
He didn't often grumble and when he did (= grumbled), *no one paid any attention to him*.

Disjunctive (or 'Tag') Questions

§ 2 g. Only the 24 anomalous finites are used in these questions.

Tomorrow's Sunday, is*n't it?*
He left yesterday, did*n't he?*
You want five, do*n't you?*
They won't be here for long, will *they?*
You can't speak Danish, can *you?*

§ 2 h. The anomalous finites are used in several common minor patterns. These patterns are used to avoid repetition.

They are used in the pattern: *so* (*nor*, *neither*) × A.F. × Subject. The subject is stressed in this pattern.

I can do it and so can ˈ*you* (= you also can do it).
I can't do it and neither can ˈ*you* (= you can't do it, either). (I.e. Neither you nor I can do it.)
Tom went to church and so did *his* ˈ*sister* (= and his sister went to church, too).
Harry didn't go to church; nor did *his* ˈ*sister* (= and his sister didn't go to church, either). (I.e. Neither Harry nor his sister went to church.)

X: *I must leave now.*
Y: *So* must ˈ*I* (= and I must leave now, too).

They are used in the pattern: *so* × Subject (or *there**) × A.F. This is a pattern used to express agreement with, or to put emphasis on, a statement. The A.F. is stressed in this pattern.

X: *I hear you went to Leeds last week.*
Y: *So I* ˈdid. (I.e. Yes, that's right. I went to Leeds last week.)
A: *There are two tigers in the garden!*
B: *So there* ˈare! (Yes, you're right! There are two tigers in the garden!)

They are used in the patterns: *No* × Subject × A.F. × *n't* and *But* × Subject × A.F. (× *n't*). These patterns are used to correct a statement or suggestion (e.g. in the form of a question) that is false. The A.F. is stressed.

X: *I hear you failed in your examination.*
Y: *No, I* ˈdid*n't*! (= I did not fail in my examination.)
A: *Why did you hit that child?*
B: *But I* ˈdid*n't!* (= I did not hit that child.)
C: *Why didn't you help the old man?*
D: *But I* ˈdid! (= I did help the old man.)

* Preparatory *there*. See § 34 b, Table No. 58.

The Emphatic Affirmative

§ **2 i.** Emphasis or prominence is given in speech by means of stress or tone or both. To emphasize the negative element in a statement, stress or a distinguishing tone may be used on *not*. E.g. 'I did *not* take your pen!' (instead of the more usual 'I didn't take your pen').

To emphasize the affirmative element in a sentence, stress or a distinguishing tone is used on the finite verb, which must be one of the anomalous finites.

> *If I* ˈdo *find the book, I'll send it to you.*
> *He doesn't often visit me, but when he* ˈdoes *visit me, he stays for hours.*
> *You* ˈare *working hard!*
> A: '*Who broke this window?*'
> B: '*I didn't!*'
> A: '*Who* ˈdid *break it?*' (Instead of 'Who broke it?' as in the first question.)

If stress is used on a finite that is not anomalous, the meaning of the verb is emphasized, not the affirmative element in the sentence.

> *I* ˈwrote *to him.* (This emphasizes the meaning of the verb. It means: I communicated with him in writing, not by speaking to him, sending him a verbal message, etc.)

Adverb Position

§ **2 j.** Those adverbs that are placed with verbs normally precede the finite verb.

> *We often go there. He always goes by bus. They already know the answer.*

They normally follow the anomalous finites when these are unstressed.

> *I've often been there. She has already seen it.*

If, however, the anomalous finite is stressed (the Emphatic Affirmative, § 2 i), these adverbs precede the finite.

Cf. { *We've never refused to help.* (Unstressed *have.*)
We never ˈhave *refused to help.* (Stressed *have.*)

For fuller information on the position of adverbials with anomalous finites and for further examples, see § 100 a–d, § 101.

NOTES ON THE ANOMALOUS FINITES

Am, Is, Are, Was, Were

§ 3. These finites are normally anomalous. The auxiliary *do* is not used for the formation of the negative and interrogative. The interrogative-negative may be formed with auxiliary *do* in rhetorical style or when *be* means 'become'. *Do* is used with the Imperative.

Why don't you be more reasonable?
Why don't you be a man and face your troubles bravely?
Why don't you be (i.e. train in order to become) *an engineer?*
Do be quiet! Do be patient! Don't be so curious!

Have, Has, Had

§ 4 a. The finites of *have* are anomalous when they are used as auxiliaries to form the Perfect Tenses.

He has left. He hasn't left. Has he left?
They had left. They hadn't left. Had they left?

When these finites are not auxiliaries, they are in some cases, but not in all cases, anomalous. There are differences between British and American usage. There are differences in British usage according to the meaning of the verb.

§ 4 b. *Have* is used to indicate possession or ownership of material objects. When used in this way the finites of *have* are anomalous in British usage. In colloquial style the Perfect Tenses of *get* are usual.

How many books have you (have you got)?
Tom hasn't got (hasn't) a pencil.
Has your brother (got) a bicycle?

In ordinary American usage, these finites are not anomalous.

How many pencils do you have?
Tom doesn't have a pencil.
Does your brother have a bicycle?

§ 4 c. *Have* is also used to indicate characteristics and relationships. Very often a sentence with a finite of *have* can be recomposed with a finite of *be*.

Cf. { *This room has five windows.* / *There are five windows in this room.*

Cf. { *This jacket has three pockets.* / *There are three pockets in this jacket.*

Cf. { *Mary has blue eyes.* / *Mary's eyes are blue.*

Cf. { *What long hair you have!* / *How long your hair is!*

Cf. { *How many children have they (got)?* / *How many children are there in the family?*

When *have* is used in this way, the finites are anomalous in British usage. In colloquial style the Perfect Tenses of *get* are used.

How many pockets has your jacket got?
Hasn't she got long hair!
I've got only one sister.
Have you got many friends in the district?

Again, in ordinary American usage, these finites are not anomalous.

How many pockets does your jacket have?
Do you have many friends here?

§ 4 d. When *have* is used with such meanings as *take*, *receive*, *experience*, the finites are not anomalous. British and American usage is the same.

1. *Do you have* (= drink) *coffee or tea for breakfast?* Cf. *Have we (got)* (= is there) *any coffee in the house?*

2. *At what time do you have* (= take) *breakfast?*

3. *Did you have* (= experience) *any difficulty in finding my house?*

4. *Does your teacher always have* (= use) *a textbook for English lessons?* Cf. *Have you (got) your textbook with you today* (i.e. is it here, in school, with you)?

5. *How often do you have* (= receive) *letters from your brother in Canada?* Cf. *Have you (got) your brother's last letter with you now?*

6. *How often does your cat have* (= give birth to) *kittens?* Cf. *Has your cat (got) any kittens now?*

7. *How often do you have* (= take, receive) *English lessons?* Cf. *Have you an English lesson this morning* (i.e. is there one in the time-table)?

§ 4 e. A distinction is made by British speakers between the use of *have* for reference to what is habitual or permanent and for reference to what is only a particular occasion. This distinction is not typical of American usage. When the reference is to what is habitual or permanent, the finites of *have* are not anomalous. When the reference is to a particular occasion, the finites of *have* are, in British usage, anomalous. Or the Perfect Tenses of *get* may be used. (The use of the Past Perfect, *had got*, for this purpose, is rare.)

1. *Do you have much time for tennis?* (i.e. as a rule, generally). Cf. *Have you (got) time for a game of tennis this afternoon?* (a particular occasion).

2. *Don't you have enough to eat?* (i.e. regularly). Cf. *Have you got enough to eat?* (i.e. now).

3. *Do they have much snow in Quebec in winter?* (i.e. as a rule, generally). Cf. *Have they* (= is there) *much snow in Quebec now?*

4. *Do you often have* (= suffer from) *colds?* Cf. *You haven't got a cold now, I hope.*

§ 4 f. *Have* is used to indicate obligation. See § 13 g, Table No. 3. Here, some but not all British speakers make a distinction between

this use of *have* for what is habitual, and its use with reference to a particular occasion. This distinction is not found in American usage.

1. *At what time do you have to be in the office every morning?* (i.e. habitually, as a rule). Cf. *I have to be* (*I've got to be*) *in the office half an hour earlier than usual tomorrow* (particular occasion).
2. *We don't have to work on Saturday afternoons.* Cf. *The firm is very busy this week so we've got to work tomorrow afternoon, although it's Saturday.*

§ 4 g. When *have* is causative (see § 20 b, Table No. 18) the finites are never anomalous.

1. *I have my hair cut once a month.*
2. *How often do you have your hair cut?*
3. *You don't have your hair cut once a week, do you?*
4. *When did you last have your hair cut?*

§ 4 h. Verbs such as *rest, drink, dine, smoke, walk* are often replaced by *have a rest, have a drink, have dinner,* etc. In these phrases the finites of *have* are never anomalous.

Did you have a pleasant walk? Don't you sometimes have a rest? Did you have a sleep?

Students of colloquial English will do well to become familiar with the peculiarities of *have* noted in sub-sections b and c above. The distinctions noted in sub-section f will be met with in speech and writing but are not distinctions that the learner need make himself. It will be sufficient for him to use *have*, in these cases, as an ordinary verb, with negative and interrogative forms with *do, does,* and *did.*

Do, Does, Did

§ 5. The finites of *do* are anomalous only when they are auxiliary verbs (in the formation of the negative and interrogative, and in

the emphatic affirmative). When *do* is a full verb, the finites are not anomalous.

> *Tom did most of the work. Harry didn't do much of the work. Did Dick do any of the work?*
> *Martha does all the housework. Mary doesn't do any of the housework. Does Helen ever do any of the housework?*

Shall-Should; Will-Would; Can-Could; May-Might; Must

§ 6. These finites are always anomalous. They are defective verbs. Their meanings, and the constructions into which they enter, may be found by reference to the Index.

Ought

§ 7. *Ought* is a defective verb. See the Index for its uses. It is always anomalous in standard English. In sub-standard English it is sometimes used with *did*. (♠ *You didn't ought to do that.*)

Need

§ 8. There is a verb *need* that is regular in every way. It has third person singular Present Tense *needs*. It is conjugated in all the tenses and forms its negative and interrogative forms with *do*, *does*, and *did*. There is also the anomalous finite *need*, used without *s* for the third person singular (*need he*, *he needn't*).

The regular verb *need* is used with a (pro)noun as its object (*VP 1*) or with a gerund (*VP 17C*) or a passive infinitive. It means 'require' or 'be in need of'.

1. *Tom needs a new coat. He doesn't need new shoes. Does he need a new shirt?*
2. *The work needed time and patience.*
3. *That blind man needs somebody to help him across the street.*
4. *My shoes need mending* (*need to be mended*).

When *need* is used with a *to*-infinitive (*VP 2*) it is regular. The finites are not anomalous.

Do you need to work so late? He doesn't need to work so late, does he?

Here the meaning is 'be obliged', 'be compelled'. It is possible to use *need* with a bare infinitive. *Need* is then anomalous. *Need,* not *needs,* is the third person singular form.

Need he work so late? He needn't work so late, need he?

The regular verb *need* can be used in the affirmative with a *to*-infinitive but *must* and *have to* are usually preferred. *Need* occurs with *will* and *shall,* however.

You must (rarely *need to*) *start early in order to arrive before dark.*

You'll have to (or *you'll need to*) *hurry if you want to catch the 2.15 train.*

The anomalous finite *need* is not used in the affirmative. It occurs only in the negative and interrogative.

The regular verb can be used in the Past Tense with a *to*-infinitive.

We didn't need to hurry. (It wasn't necessary for us to hurry.)

The anomalous finite has no Past Tense form. It can be used with a Perfect Infinitive, without *to.*

We needn't have hurried.

Note the difference in meaning.

We didn't need to hurry. (It wasn't necessary for us to hurry and we didn't hurry.)

We needn't have hurried. (We have hurried. But now we see that it wasn't necessary.)

They didn't need to go. (Whether they did go or did not go, it wasn't necessary for them to go.)

They needn't have gone. (They have gone. It wasn't necessary for them to go.)

The negative *needn't* (absence of obligation or necessity) c
responds to the affirmative *must* or *have to.* (*Mustn't* indic
prohibition.)

Cf. { *He needn't start yet.* / *He must start now.* }   Cf. { *Need you go yet?* / *Yes, I must.* }

Dare

§ 9. The verb *dare* is used both as a regular verb and as
anomalous finite.

Anomalous *dare* is used in the negative with a bare infinit
The third person singular, Present Tense, is *dare*, not *da*
Daren't is used for present, past, and future time.

> *Harry met Mr. Green yesterday but he daren't tell him tha*
> *had smashed the motor-car we borrowed from him.*
> *Will you tell Mr. Green that we've smashed his motor-ca*
> *daren't tell him.*

The regular verb *dare* is used with either a *to*-infinitive or a b
infinitive.

> *Harry met Mr. Green yesterday but he didn't dare* (*to*) *tell*
> *that we had smashed the motor-car we borrowed from hin*
> *Will you tell Mr. Green that we've smashed his motor-c*
> *I don't dare* (*to*) *tell him.*

Anomalous *dare* is used in the interrogative, especially a
how.

> *How dare you speak to me like that?*
> *How dare he say such rude things about me?*
> *Dare he admit it?*

The regular verb *dare* is used in the interrogative with a
infinitive.

> *Do they dare* (= are they impudent enough) *to suggest t*
> *we have been dishonest?*

When *dare* means 'challenge', it is used with a (pro)noun and a *to*-infinitive and is quite regular.

He dared me to jump across the stream.
I dare anyone to prove that my facts are incorrect.

Dare is also quite regular when it means 'face boldly'.

He was ready to dare any danger.

Used to

§ 10 a. For the meaning of this finite and the ways in which it is used, see § 51 b. Note the pronunciation [ju:st]. It is to be distinguished from the Past Tense of *use*. This has the same spelling, *used*, but is pronounced [ju:zd].

Used is anomalous. It has the negative *usedn't* ['ju:snt] and the interrogative *used we* (*he*, *she*, etc.). In tag-questions and responses, however, *did* often replaces *used*.

You used to live in Leeds, use(d)n't (or *didn't*) *you?*
A: '*Brown used to live in Leeds.*'
B: '*Oh, did he?* (*Oh, used he?*)'

An increasing number of speakers say '*Did he use to*' and '*He didn't use to*' instead of '*Used he to*' and '*He usedn't to*'.

§ 10 b. Distinguish *used to* × infinitive from *be* (*get*) *used* [ju:st] *to something* (*to doing something*), meaning '*be* (*get*) *accustomed to*'.

He's not used to hard manual work.

VERB PATTERNS

§ 11. The twenty-five verb patterns set out below are identical with those used in *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (Oxford University Press). They are set out here in greater detail and with fuller notes and explanations.

Patterns *1* to *19* are of verbs used transitively (that is, with a direct object). Patterns *20* to *25* are of verbs used intransitively (that is, without a direct object).

Summary of Verb Patterns

VP 1 Vb. × Simple Direct Object
VP 2 Vb. × (*not* ×) *to*-infinitive, etc.
VP 3 Vb. × (pro)noun × (*not* ×) *to*-infinitive, etc.
VP 4 Vb. × (pro)noun × (*not* ×) (*to be* ×) predicative
VP 5 Vb. × (pro)noun × bare infinitive, etc.
VP 6 Vb. × (pro)noun × present participle, etc.
VP 7 Vb. × (pro)noun × adjective
VP 8 Vb. × (pro)noun × noun
VP 9 Vb. × (pro)noun × past participle
VP 10 Vb. × (pro)noun × adverbial
VP 11 Vb. × *that*-clause
VP 12 Vb. × (pro)noun × *that*-clause
VP 13 Vb. × conjunctive* × *to*-infinitive, etc.
VP 14 Vb. × (pro)noun × conjunctive × *to*-infinitive, etc.
VP 15 Vb. × conjunctive × clause
VP 16 Vb. × (pro)noun × conjunctive × clause
VP 17 Vb. × gerund, etc.
VP 18 Vb. × direct object × prep. × prepositional object
VP 19 Vb. × indirect object × direct object
VP 20 Vb. × (*for* ×) adverbial complement of distance, time, etc.
VP 21 Vb. alone
VP 22 Vb. × predicative
VP 23 Vb. × adverbial adjunct
VP 24 Vb. × prep. × prepositional object
VP 25 Vb. × *to*-infinitive (of purpose, etc.)

VERB PATTERN 1

§ **12.** In this pattern the verb has a direct object. This is either a (pro)noun or a relative clause introduced by *what*. For the use of a gerund as a direct object, see *VP 17*. For other clauses used as direct objects, see *VP 11, 12, 15, 16*.

* *Conjunctive*: see § 24, notes.

Table No. 1 (VP 1)

	Subject × Verb	*Direct Object*
1	I know	your name.
2	Do you want	any help?
3	You did not answer	my question.
4	Who knows	the answer?
5	He cut	his finger.
6	He cut	himself.
7	Shall I light	the lamp?
8	Have you had	breakfast?
9	Don't you remember	my name?
10	He dug	a deep hole.
11	She said	'Good morning'.
12	She laughed	a merry laugh.
13	She smiled	her thanks.
14	This climate does not suit	me.
15	Please describe carefully	what you saw.
16	Please describe	what there is in front of you.

NOTES

No. 6. Note the use of the reflexive pronoun as object.

No. 10. Note the object of result (*a deep hole*).

No. 12. Note the cognate object (*a merry laugh*).

Nos. 15 and 16. Note the relative clauses: *what* (that which) you saw; *what* (that which) *there is in front of you*. Cf. *I wonder what you saw* (*VP 15*), in which *what you saw* is a dependent question. (What did you see, I wonder?)

When the subject is an infinitive phrase, or the *for*×(pro)noun×*to*-infinitive construction, or a clause, preparatory *it* is used.

Cf. { *Will that suit you?*
When will it suit you for me to call?

Cf. { *An idea struck me.*
It never struck me that you might need help.

Cf. { *The news does not interest me.*
It does not interest me whether you succeed or fail.

The verbs that can be used in this pattern are too numerous to list.

VERB PATTERN 2

§ **13 a.** In this pattern the object of the verb is a *to*-infinitive (which may be preceded by *not*). For intransitive verbs used with a *to*-infinitive (e.g. *be*, *come*, *agree*, *seem*, *happen*, *care*), see *VP* 22 and *VP* 25.

Table No. 2 (VP 2)

	Subject × *Verb*	(not ×) to-*infinitive, etc.*
1	Please try	to do better next time.
2	Do they want	to go?
3	He has refused	to help us.
4	It has begun	to rain.
5	It came on	to rain.
6	Do you intend	to go to the meeting?
7	He pretended	not to see me.
8	Have you learnt	to swim yet?
9	Would you like	to come with me?
10	Did you remember	to post the letters?
11	I forgot	to post your letters.

NOTES

Nos. 4 and 5. The subject is impersonal *it* (as in *It is raining*). In No. 5 the phrasal verb *come on* means 'start', 'begin'. See § 28 a, Note to Example No. 3.

§ **13 b.** No. 10. *Remember*, in this pattern, is the contrary of *forget*. When *remember* means 'call to mind', 'have a memory of', it is used in *VP 1* or *VP 17*. Compare the following examples:

Please remember (don't forget) *to post the letters.* (*VP 2*)
I remembered (didn't forget) *to post the letters.* (*VP 2*)
I can't remember his name. (*VP 1*)
I remember posting your letters. (*VP 17*)
She said she remembered posting the letters. (*VP 17*)

§ **13 c.** No. 11. *Forget*, in this pattern, is the opposite of *remember*. When *forget* means 'no longer have a memory of', it may be used in *VP 17*. Compare:

I forgot (didn't remember) *to post your letters.* (*VP 2*)
Shall you ever forget hearing her sing? (*VP 17*)

§ **13 d.** Some verbs used in *VP 2* are also used in *VP 1*. Thus, *prefer* and *pretend* may be used with a (pro)noun as object.

Cf. *I prefer an early start.* (*VP 1*)
I prefer to start early. (*VP 2*)

Cf. *He pretended indifference.* (*VP 1*)
He pretended to be indifferent. (*VP 2*)

§ **13 e.** Some of the verbs used in this pattern are also used intransitively. For example, *decide* and *hope* are also used in *VP 24*. They are also used in *VP 11*.

He decided not to go to the meeting. (*VP 2*)
He decided (that) he wouldn't go to the meeting. (*VP 11*)
He decided against going to the meeting. (*VP 24*)
We're hoping to have better weather soon. (*VP 2*)
We're hoping (that) the weather will be better soon. (*VP 11*)
We're hoping for better weather soon. (*VP 24*)

§ **13 f.** The verb *think* is normally used in *VP 11*. When used in *VP 2* it has the meanings noted in the examples below.

I never thought (expected) *to see you here.*
He thinks to (has the idea that he can or will) *deceive us.*

Cf. *I never thought to consult the time-table.* (*VP 25*)

This means: 'I did not think of consulting the time-table.' (*VP 24, to think of doing something.*)

The commonest verbs used in this pattern are: *attempt, begin, cease, come on* (= begin), *commence, continue, dare, decide, desire, endeavour, expect, fear, forget, guarantee, have, hope, intend, learn, like, love, mean* (= intend), *need, offer, ought, prefer, pretend, promise, propose, purpose, refuse, regret, remember, start, swear, try, undertake, want, wish.*

Table No. 3 (VP 2)

§ **13 g.** The verb *have* is used in *VP 2* to indicate obligation. (See § 114 e, f.) In colloquial style *have to* is usually replaced by *have got to. Had to* is occasionally replaced by *had got to.*

For notes on the (not very important) differences between *have we to* and *do we have to*, etc., see § 4 f.

	Subject × *Verb*	to-*infinitive, etc.*
1	I shall have	to go.
2	Have we (got)	to change trains here?
3	Does he often have	to go to the doctor?
4	They haven't (got)	to go to school on Sundays, have they?
5	You don't have	to go to school on Sundays, do you?
6	Have we	to answer all these questions?

NOTE ON VERB PATTERN 2

§ **13 h.** In this pattern the *to*-infinitive is regarded as the object of the verb. There is a small number of verbs that take a bare infinitive as object. These are the anomalous verbs, *do, does, did* (auxiliary), *will-would, shall-should, can-could, may-might, must, dare,* and *need.* These are treated separately instead of being grouped in a pattern. See the Index.

The phrases *had better* and *would (had) rather* are also used with a bare infinitive.

You had better start at once.
I'd rather not go.

VERB PATTERN 3

§ **14 a.** In this pattern the verb is followed by a (pro)noun and a *to*-infinitive, so closely connected that they form a unit. This is sometimes called the 'accusative and infinitive' construction.

Table No. 4 (VP 3)

	Subject × *Verb*	(*Pro*)*noun*	(not ×) to-*infinitive*
1	I do not want	anyone	to know.
2	Do you wish	me	to stay?
3	Will you help	me	to carry this box upstairs?
4	We can't allow	them	to do that.
5	He likes	his wife	to dress well.
6	Didn't I ask	you	not to do that?
7	Who taught	her	to swim?
8	She can't bear	you	to be unhappy.
9	Did he mean	us	to know?
10	We should prefer	them	to come next week.
11	The rain caused	the weeds	to grow fast.
12	They warned	me	not to be late.
13	The officer ordered	his men	to advance.
14	Did you advise	your brother	to accept the offer?
15	They lead	me	to believe that there was no danger.

NOTES

Here are examples of these sentences in the passive:

No. 4. *They can't be allowed to do that.*
No. 9. *Were we meant to know?*
No. 12. *I was warned not to be late.*
No. 13. *The men were ordered to advance.*

The verb *help* is also used in *VP 5B*. See Table No. 9.

Will you help me (*to*) *carry this box upstairs, please?*

The commonest verbs used in this pattern are: *advise, allow, ask,* (*can't*) *bear, beg, cause, challenge, choose, command, compel, dare* (= challenge), *decide, determine, encourage, entreat, expect, force, get, give* (*someone to understand* ...), *hate, help, implore, instruct, intend, invite, lead* (= cause), *leave, like, love, mean* (= intend), *oblige, order, permit, persuade, prefer, prepare, press* (= urge), *promise, remind, request, teach, tell, tempt, trouble, urge, want, warn, wish.*

Table No. 5 (VP 3)

§ 14 b. Instead of the usual accusative and infinitive construction

it is possible to have the construction *there* × *to be* × (pro)noun. See § 32 b, Table No. 45 (*VP 21*).

Cf. { *I do not want any of you to misunderstand me.*
I do not want there to be any misunderstanding. }

This table illustrates this variation of the pattern.

	Subject × *Verb*	there to be × *noun, etc.*
1	You wouldn't want	there to be another war.
2	I don't want	there to be any trouble.
3	Would you like	there to be a meeting to discuss the question?
4	He meant	there to be no disobedience.
5	We should hate	there to be any trouble.
6	I should prefer	there to be no public discussion of my affairs.
7	I expect	there to be no argument about this.

As the examples show, the pattern illustrated in this Table is used when the verb *be* has no complement. It is idiomatic to say: *You don't want another war to break out.* It is idiomatic to say: *You don't want there to be another war.* It is not idiomatic to say: (♠) *You don't want another war to be.*

VERB PATTERN 4

§ 15 a. Verbs used in this pattern are chiefly verbs that indicate an opinion, judgement, belief, supposition, declaration, or a mental (not a physical) perception. The pattern is typical of formal style. In informal style it is more usual to have a dependent clause after the verb, as in *VP 11*.

The direct object may be a (pro)noun or a relative clause with *what* (Table No. 6) or a dependent clause, infinitive phrase, etc.

with preparatory *it* (Table No. 7). The complement of *be* may be an adjective, adjective phrase, or noun.

The infinitive *to be* is often omitted. This possibility is shown in the examples by the use of parentheses. For past time the perfect infinitive *to have been* is used. This cannot be omitted.

Table No. 6 (VP 4)

	Subject × *Verb*	(*Pro*)*noun, etc.*	(to be ×) *complement*
1	Most people supposed	him	(to be) innocent.
2	They proved	him	(to be) wrong.
3	Do you think	him	(to be) a good worker?
4	I consider	what he said	(to be) unimportant (of little importance).
5	I have always found	Smith	(to be) friendly (a good friend, of a friendly disposition).
6	Do you believe	such inquiries	(to be) useful?
7	All the neighbours supposed	her	to be a widow.
8	They have proved	themselves	(to be) worthy of promotion.
9	Everyone reported	him	(to be) the best man for the job.
10	I should guess	her	to be about fifty.
11	He declared	himself	to be a member of the R.C. Church.
12	We all felt (saw)	the plan	to be unwise.
13	We believe	it	to have been a mistake.
14	Do you deny	this	to have been the case?
15	They knew	the man	to have been a spy.
16	I judged	him	to be about fifty.

NOTES

In informal style we should say:

No. 1. *Most people supposed (that) he was innocent.*

No. 2. *They proved (that) he was wrong.*

No. 3. *Do you think he's a good worker?*

No. 7. *All the neighbours supposed (that) she was a widow.*

No. 8. *They've proved that they're worthy of promotion.*

Note these examples of the passive:

No. 4. *What he said is considered to be of little importance.*
No. 6. *Are such inquiries believed to be useful?*
No. 9. *He was reported to be the best man for the job.*
No. 12. *The plan was felt (seen) to be unwise.*
No. 15. *The man was known to have been a spy.*

Note the word order in relative clauses:

This custom, which I think barbarous, . . .
The prisoner, whom I considered to be innocent, . . .
The visitor, whom I guessed to be about sixty, . . .
She is not so young as I supposed (her to be).
You're not so clever as I believed you to be.

Table No. 7 (VP 4)

§ 15 b. In this table there are, in the final column, various constructions that take the place of the (pro)noun in Table No. 6. There are *that*-clauses, infinitive phrases, the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction, and a gerundial phrase. Preparatory *it* follows the verb and *to be* does not occur before the complement.

	Subject × Verb	*it*	*Complement*	*Clause, Phrase, etc.*
1	Do you think	it	odd	that I should live by myself?
2	I think	it	a pity	(that) you didn't try harder.
3	We all thought	it	wrong	that they should be wasted.
4	We all consider	it	wrong	to cheat in examinations.
5	Don't you think	it	unwise	to climb the mountain without a guide?
6	Don't you think	it	prudent	to wait until you can get a guide?
7	I think	it	a pity	to waste them.
8	They considered	it	a great compliment	for the President to visit them.
9	Everyone thought	it	most foolish	for you to climb the mountain alone.
10	We think	it	most dangerous	your climbing the mountain alone.
11	I count	it	an honour	to serve you.

NOTES

Compare the word order in Tables Nos. 6 and 7.

{ *Do you think my behaviour odd?*
  Do you think it odd that I should live by myself?

There are alternative constructions for most of the sentences in Table No. 7.

No. 1. *Do you think it odd for me to live by myself?*

No. 3. *We all thought it wrong for them to be wasted.*

No. 4. *We all consider that it is wrong to cheat in examinations.* (*VP 11*)

No. 7. *I think it is (would be) a pity to waste them.* (*VP 11*)

No. 8. *They considered it a great compliment that the President should visit them.*

No. 9. *Everyone thought it most foolish that you should try to climb the mountain alone.*

Note that *count* (in example No. 11) cannot be used in *VP 11*.

The phrase *think* (or *see*) *fit to do something* may be used without *it*.

> *We must wait until they think fit to help us* (i.e. until they decide to help us). Compare:
> *We must wait until they think it right to help us.*

The commonest verbs used in *VP 4* are: *acknowledge, believe, consider, count, declare, deny, esteem, fancy, feel, find, guess, imagine, judge, know, prove, realize, report, see, show, suppose, suspect, take* (= suppose, think), *think, understand.*

VERB PATTERN 5

§ 16 a. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun and a bare infinitive. Note that a *to*-infinitive is needed in the passive. (See the examples in the Notes to the Tables below.)

Table No. 8 (VP 5A)

The verbs in this table indicate physical perceptions. These verbs are also used in *VP 6*.

> *I saw the man cross the road.* (*VP 5*)
> *I saw the man crossing the road.* (*VP 6*)

VP 5 suggests a completed activity; *VP 6* suggests an activity

in progress. The difference may be seen by means of a comparison with the simple and progressive tenses.

I saw the man cross the road. (The man crossed the road and I saw him do this.)

I saw the man crossing the road. (The man was crossing the road, and I saw him while he was doing this.)

Compare these sentences:

I saw Mr. White get off a bus. (*VP 5*) (This suggests that I saw the complete action.)

I saw Mr. White looking into a shop window. (*VP 6*) (He may have been looking into the window before I saw him and may have continued to do this afterwards.)

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Infinitive, etc.*
1	Watch	that boy	jump!
2	Did you see	him	go out?
3	Did anyone hear	John	leave the house?
4	We felt	the house	shake.
5	I like to hear	her	sing.
6	Did you notice	anyone	come in?

NOTES

When such verbs as *see* and *feel* indicate mental, not physical, perceptions, *VP 11* is used. Compare:

I saw him hit the cat. (*VP 5*, physical perception.)
I saw (felt) that he disliked the cat. (*VP 11*, mental perception.)

I saw him leave the room. (*VP 5*)
I saw that he disapproved of what we were doing. (*VP 11*)

The phrasal verbs *look at* and *listen to* are used in *VP 5*.

Look at that boy jump!
Do you like listening to other people talk?

Examples of the passive construction:

Was he seen to go out?
Was John heard to leave the room?

The verbs used in *VP 5A* are: *feel, hear, listen to, look at, notice, observe, perceive, see, watch.*

Table No. 9 (VP 5B)

§ 16 b. This table gives examples of a small number of other verbs (not indicating physical perceptions) used in this pattern.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Infinitive, etc.*
1	They made	me	do it.
2	What makes	you	think so?
3	Let	me	go.
4	We can't let	the matter	rest here.
5	I will let	you	have news.
6	Shall I help	you	carry that box upstairs?
7	He bade	the attendants	leave the hall.
8	I have never known	him	behave so badly before.
9	Have you ever known	her	lose her temper?
10	I have known	educated persons	make this mistake.

NOTES

The *to*-infinitive is needed in the passive:

I was made to do it.
She has never been known to lose her temper.

The verb *let* is not much used in the passive. *Allow* is preferred.

The matter cannot be allowed to rest here.

Help is used in both *VP 5* and *VP 3*. *VP 5* is characteristic of American English.

Shall I help you (to) carry that box upstairs?

§ 16 c. The verb *know* is used in this pattern in the past and perfect tenses. It is not used in other tenses in this pattern. The meaning is 'see', 'hear', 'have experience or knowledge of'.

I have never known (seen) *that man smile.*
That man has never been known (seen) *to smile.*
Have you ever known (heard) *me tell a lie?*
That man has never been known (heard) *to tell a lie.*

§ 16 d. After the verb *let* the infinitive *be*, used without a complement, occurs in literary style in the *there × to be* construction, especially in the imperative.

Let there be light. (Not ♠ *Let light be.*)
Let there be an end of this misunderstanding.

Compare Tables 5 and 45.

In colloquial style, *have* is preferred: *Let's have no misunderstanding.*

The verbs *go, fall,* and *slip* are used with *let* in *VP 5B* but with some irregularity. A personal pronoun takes its normal place in the pattern (between *let* and the following verb). A noun, especially if it is modified by the addition of a phrase, etc., follows the infinitive *go, fall,* or *slip.*

{ *Let it (him, her, them) go.*
{ *Let go the rope.*
{ *The ship let go her anchor.*

{ *Don't let it (him, her, them) fall.*
{ *He let fall a hint about his intentions.*

{ *Don't let it (him, her, them) slip.*
{ *Don't let slip any opportunity of practising your English.*

This is in conformity with the general principle that a phonetically heavy object tends to come last. Compare (*VP 10*):

{ *Throw them away.*
{ *Throw away all those that are useless or worn out.*

The verbs used in *VP 5B* are: *bid, help, know, let, make.*

Table No. 10 (VP 5B)

§ 16 e. This table illustrates the use of *have* in this pattern.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Infinitive, etc.*
1	I will (would) have	you	know that . . .
2	What would you have	me	do?
3	Would you have	me	believe that?
4	You wouldn't have	me	do that, would you?
5	He would have had	her	believe that he was penniless.
6	Would you have	the Government	control our lives completely?
7	She likes to have	the house	look clean and tidy.
8	We like to have	our friends	come to stay with us.
9	I had	a most extraordinary thing	happen to me.
10	Please have	the porter	carry these boxes up to my room.

NOTES

Have, in the first six examples, is used with *will* and *would.* The meaning is 'want' or 'wish' or 'like'. Thus:

No. 1. *I want you to know that . . .*

No. 2. *What do you want (wish) me to do?*
No. 3. *Do you wish (expect) me to . . .?*
No. 4. *You wouldn't like (don't want) me to . . .*
No. 5. *He wanted (would have liked) her to believe . . .*
No. 6. *Do you want (would you like) the Government to . . .*

The remaining examples can be paraphrased as follows:

No. 7. *She likes the house to look clean and tidy. She likes to have the house in a clean and tidy state.*

No. 8. *We like our friends to come to stay with us. We like to have visits from our friends.*

No. 9. *A most extraordinary thing happened to me. I had a most extraordinary experience.*

No. 10. *Please tell (ask, get) the porter to carry . . .*

The more usual form for a request of the kind illustrated in No. 10 is *VP 9*. See § 20 b, Table No. 18.

Please have (get) these boxes carried up to my room.

VERB PATTERN 6

§ 17 a. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun and a present participle. See § 16 a.

Table No. 11 (VP 6A)

The verbs in this table indicate physical perceptions.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Present Participle*
1	I saw	the thief	running away.
2	We watched	the train	steaming past.
3	I heard	him	giving orders.
4	Can you smell	something	burning?
5	She could feel	her heart	beating wildly.
6	Did you notice	anyone	standing near the door?
7	We listened to	the band	playing in the park.
8	Just look at	the rain	coming down!

NOTES

Passive construction:

The thief was seen running away.
He was heard giving orders.

The verbs used in *VP 6A* are: *feel, hear, listen to, look at, notice, observe, perceive, see, smell, watch.*

Table No. 12 (VP 6B)

§ **17 b.** This table gives examples of other verbs (not indicating physical perception) that are used in this pattern.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Present Participle*
1	I found	him	working at his desk.
2	We *mustn't* keep	them	waiting.
3	They left	me	waiting outside.
4	The news left	me	wondering what would happen next.
5	This set	me	thinking.
6	Don't let me catch	you	doing that again.
7	I caught	him	stealing apples from my garden.
8	Please start	the clock	going.
9	You had better start	the engine	running.
10	We'll soon get	things	going.
11	Keep	the ball	rolling.

NOTES

Passive construction:

No. 1. *He was found working at his desk.*
No. 2. *They mustn't be kept waiting.*
No. 3. *I was left waiting outside.*

Catch, find, get, imagine, keep, leave, set, and *start* are the chief verbs used in *VP 6B.*

(Pro)noun or Possessive?

§ **17 c.** A variation of *VP 6B* occurs when instead of a present participle we have a gerund. It is not always clear whether the word following the (pro)noun is a present participle or a gerund and the distinction is not important.

Compare these sentences:

I cannot understand his behaviour. (*VP 1*)
I cannot understand why he behaves like that. (*VP 15*)
I cannot understand his behaving like that. (*VP 17B*)

The third example may be rewritten:

I cannot understand him behaving like that. (*VP 6B?*)

Such constructions are considered incorrect by some grammarians but there are many cases in which they are natural, especially when, instead of a possessive pronoun, we have a noun or group of words with which *'s* is out of place. Compare:

Do you remember my asking you about your uncle? (*VP 17B*)
Do you remember John and Mary asking you about your uncle? (*John and Mary's* is impossible.) (*VP 6B*)

In *How can we stop* (*prevent*) *them landing?* the word *landing* can be considered a gerund (with the preposition *from* understood). Cf. also:

Can you imagine these two old men climbing Mt. Kenya? (*VP 6B*)
Can you imagine their doing such a thing? (*VP 17B*)

Table No. 13 (VP 6B)

§ 17 d. This table illustrates the use of *have* in this pattern.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Present Participle*
1	I can't have	you	doing that.
2	We can't have	them	wasting their time in this way.
3	We shall soon have	the mists	rising.
4	He soon had	them all	laughing.
5	I'll have	you all	speaking fluent English within a year.

NOTES

In Nos. 1 and 2 *have* means 'allow' or 'suffer'. In No. 3 *have* implies an experience of a coming state. In Nos. 4 and 5 *have* indicates a cause. Here are paraphrases:

No. 1. *I can't allow you to do that. You mustn't do that.*
No. 2. *We can't allow them to waste their time in this way.*
No. 3. *The mists will soon be rising.*
No. 4. *He soon made them all laugh.*
No. 5. *I will teach you all to speak fluent English within a year.*

VERB PATTERN 7

§ 18. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun or gerund and a predicative adjective. In *VP 7A* the adjective denotes a

state or condition that results from the action indicated by the verb. In *VP 7B* the combination of the (pro)noun and the adjective may be regarded as the object of the verb.

Table No. 14 (VP 7A)

§ **18 a.** In this table there are examples in which the adjective denotes a state or condition that results from the action indicated by the verb. Thus, in the statement *We painted the door green*, we indicate that the door is green as the result of being painted. A verb that is usually intransitive may be used, with a reflexive pronoun, in this pattern. Thus, the statement *He slept himself sober* indicates that the drunken man in question became sober as the result of sleeping.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Adjective*
1	Can you push	the door	open?
2	She flung	all the windows	open.
3	We had to break	the trunk	open.
4	The cat licked	the saucer	clean.
5	The Governor set	the prisoners	free.
6	We hammered (beat)	it	flat.
7	The cold weather is turning	the leaves	yellow.
8	She boiled	the egg	hard.
9	The pain drove	her	almost mad.
10	You've made	your shoes	muddy.
11	He slit	the envelope	open.
12	They beat	the poor boy	black and blue.
13	The sun keeps	us	warm.
14	You'd better pack	the dresses	flat.
15	Open	your mouth	wide.
16	Raise	your head	higher.
17	Don't make	yourself	ill.
18	He shouted	himself	hoarse.
19	The blister on my heel made	walking	painful.

NOTES

Note the passive construction:

No. 3. *The trunk had to be broken open.*

No. 5. *The prisoners were set free.*
No. 9. *She was driven almost mad by the pain.*
No. 14. *The dresses had better be packed flat.*

An adjective phrase may occur in the pattern.
No. 5. *The Governor set the prisoners at liberty.*

If the object is a long one, the adjective may precede it. Compare:

The Governor set the prisoners free. The Governor set free all those prisoners whose offences were purely political.
He made his meaning clear. He made clear his strong objections to the proposals.

When *cut short* and *make good* are used, the adjective may precede even a short object (but not a personal pronoun).

He cut short the introductions. (But *Cut it short.*)
They managed to make good (i.e. effect) *their retreat.*

If the object is a *that*-clause, a *to*-infinitive, or a dependent question, preparatory *it* is used. It is placed between the verb and the adjective.

He made it clear that he objected to the proposals.
You have not made it clear whether I am to go or not.
The blister on his heel made it painful to walk.

Table No. 15 (VP 7B)

§ 18 b. The combination of (pro)noun and adjective is the object of the verb.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Adjective*
1	I found	the box	empty.
2	He likes	his coffee	strong.
3	I want	everything	ready by seven o'clock.
4	I hope I see	you	well.
5	I shall hold	you	responsible.
6	He wished	himself	dead.

NOTES

No. 1. This sentence is not the same as *I found the empty box*. It means: 'I found the box, and it was empty when I found it.' Cf. *They found the boy fast asleep*, which means: 'The boy was fast asleep when they found him.'
No. 2. Cf. *He likes his coffee to be strong.* (*VP 3*)
No. 4. This means: 'I hope you are well (now, when I see you)'.
No. 6. Cf. *He wished that he was dead.* (*VP 11*) Cf. the use of reflexive

C

pronouns in *VP 7B*. *He shouted himself hoarse* (i.e. actually became hoarse as the result of shouting).

Compare the verb *find* in *VP 7* and *VP 4*.

We found the bird-cage empty. (The cage was empty when we found it.)
We found John (to be) a hard worker (or, *VP 11*) *that John was a hard worker*. (We learnt, as the result of experience, that John was a hard worker.)

Verbs used in *VP 7* are: *bake* (e.g. bake it hard), *beat*, *boil*, *burn* (e.g. burn it black), *colour* (e.g. colour it red), *cry*, *cut*, *drive*, *dye*, *eat* (e.g. eat oneself sick), *fill*, *find*, *get*, *hammer*, *hold*, *keep*, *lay* (e.g. lay the country waste), *leave*, *lick*, *like*, *make*, *paint*, *render*, *see*, *set*, *sleep* (e.g. sleep oneself sober), *turn*, *wash*, *wipe*, *wish*.

VERB PATTERN 8

§ **19**. In this pattern the verb has a direct object (noun or pronoun) and a predicative adjunct (noun or noun clause).

Table No. 16 (VP 8)

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Noun, etc.*
1	They made	Newton	President of the Royal Society.
2	They wanted to crown	Caesar	king.
3	They elected	Mr. Grey	(as) chairman.
4	We appointed	him	manager.
5	He has made	the company	what it is today.
6	They nominated	him	President.
7	The pastor christened (baptized)	the child	Jennifer.
8	They have named	the baby	Richard but
	they call	it	Dick.
9	They named	the ship	'Queen Mary'.
10	Call	it	what you will.
11	They found	the place	a prosperous village and
	(they) left	it	a ruin.

NOTES

Note the passive construction:

Newton was made President of the Royal Society.
He was appointed manager.
He will be called (named, styled, entitled, designated) Prince Consort.
What is the baby called?

With *choose* and *elect* the adjunct is often preceded by *as* or *for*.

Whom will they choose for a chief?
I wonder who(m) they will elect as chairman.
Whom will they choose as (for) their leader?

Compare the use of *choose* in *VP 19B*.

His parents chose him a good healthy girl as wife.

The number of verbs used in this pattern is small. They are: *appoint, baptize, call, choose, christen, crown, designate, dub* (= nickname), *elect, entitle, find, leave, make, name, nickname, nominate, style*.

VERB PATTERN 9

§ 20. In this pattern the verb is followed by a (pro)noun and a past participle as predicative adjunct.

Table No. 17 (VP 9)

§ 20 a. This table gives examples of verbs other than *have* and *get* (which are illustrated in Tables Nos. 18 and 19).

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Past Participle*
1	He couldn't make	his voice	heard.
2	He made	his influence	felt.
3	You must make	yourself	respected.
4	I heard	my name	called.
5	We found	the house	deserted.
6	Have you ever heard	this opera	sung in Italian?
7	Have you ever seen	a man	hanged?
8	I want	this work	finished quickly.
9	He had seen	towns	destroyed by bombing.
10	He felt	himself	lifted up.

The verbs used in this pattern are: *feel, find, hear, like, make, prefer, see, want, wish*, and (as in Table No. 18) *get*, and *have*.

Table No. 18 (VP 9)

§ **20 b.** This table illustrates the causative use of *have* and *get*. (See § 4 g.)

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Past Participle*
1	I must get	my hair	cut.
2	We shall have	the house	painted.
3	Where did you have (get)	your cards	printed?
4	You had better have	that tooth	pulled out.
5	We must have (get)	it	seen to.
6	They will have	you	put in prison.

NOTES

In all these examples the idea is 'cause something to be done'. The sentences may be paraphrased:

No. 1. *I must go to the barber and tell him to cut my hair.*
No. 2. *We shall tell the decorators to paint the house.*
No. 3. *Which firm of printers printed your cards?*
No. 4. *It would be a good thing if you asked a dentist to pull that tooth out.*
No. 5. *We must find someone to see to it.*
No. 6. *They will cause you to be put in prison.*

Table No. 19 (VP 9)

§ **20 c.** In this table there are examples of *have* with the meaning 'suffer' or 'experience' and also with its more usual meaning of 'hold' or 'possess'. The verb *get* is not used with these meanings in this pattern.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Past Participle*
1	She has had	her handbag	stolen.
2	The General had	two horses	shot under him.
3	King Charles I had	his head	cut off.
4	The soldier had	his left leg	amputated.
5	Some of the houses had	their windows	broken by the explosion.
6	We have had	our house	broken into by thieves.
7	We have	the enemy	almost surrounded.
8	They have	scarcely any money	saved for their old age.

NOTE

No. 8. Cf. *They have saved* (present perfect tense) *scarcely any money for their old age.* (*VP 1*)

VERB PATTERN 10

§ 21. In this pattern the verb is followed by a (pro)noun and an adverbial adjunct. The pattern is possible with almost any transitive verb and no list is needed. The pattern is subdivided.

Table No. 20 (VP 10A)

§ 21 a. This table illustrates *VP 10* when the adverbial adjunct is one of the adverbial particles (see § 106) *on*, *off*, *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *away*, *back*, etc., in such combinations as *put on*, *take off*, *pick up*, *put down*, *give away*, *send out*, *knock down*.

In this table the (pro)noun, which is the object of the verb,

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*A.P.*
1	Put	your hat	on.
2	Take	your coat	off.
3	Lock	this	up.
4	Don't lock	yourself	out.
5	Send	them	back.
6	Have you given	it	away?
7	Bring	her	in.
8	Take	the dog	out.
9	The bus knocked	him	down.
10	I can't get	this nail	out.
11	You should wind	it	up.
12	They laughed (shouted)	the man	down.
13	Have you packed	them	up?
14	I hope you'll back	me	up.
15	The child picked	itself	up.
16	Take	yourself	off!

precedes the adverbial particle. This order is used when the object is a personal, reflexive, or demonstrative pronoun, or when the object is comparatively short. Compare Table No. 21 in which the particle precedes the object (never a personal pronoun). The personal pronouns that may occur are *it*, *them*, *him*, *her*, *you*, *me*, *us*.

NOTES

No. 12. *They reduced the man to silence by laughing* (*shouting*) *at him.*
No. 15. *The child got to its feet* (after a fall).
No. 16. (colloquial) *Go away!*

Table No. 21 (VP 10A)

§ **21 b.** This table illustrates the alternative pattern in which the adverbial particle is placed between the verb and its object. This order is used when the object is long or when it is wished to make the object more prominent.

	Subject × Verb	*A.P.*	*Noun, etc.*
1	Put	on	your other hat.
2	Take	off	your overcoat.
3	We must lock	up	the house.
4	He gave	away	every penny he had.
5	You should put	on	the warmest clothes you have.
6	Please bring	in	those chairs that are in the garden.
7	She cleaned	out	every room in the house.
8	Don't throw	away	anything that might be useful.
9	She put	on	an air of innocence.
10	You've brought	about	my ruin.
11	He has brought	about	great reforms.

NOTES

The first three examples in this table may be recomposed as in Table No. 20.

Put your other hat on.
Take your overcoat off.
We must lock the house up.

If a personal pronoun is substituted, only one order is possible.

Put it on. Take it off. We must lock it up. (Never ♠ *Put on it, Take off it. Lock up it.*)

In examples 4 to 11 the position of the adverbial particle, between the verb and the object, is the normal position.

Note the passive construction:

The house must be locked up.
Every room in the house was cleaned out.

Table No. 22 (VP 10A)

§ **21 c.** This table gives examples of the countless other adverbials that may be used in this pattern, adverbials of place and direction, manner, result, purpose, outcome, etc. Infinitive phrases and adverbial clauses are shown in Table No. 23.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Adverbial*
1	Please put	the book	on the table.
2	Shall we carry	the box	upstairs?
3	Don't throw	it	out of the window.
4	We took	the children	for a walk.
5	The servant showed	me	to the door.
6	I found	the book	under the desk.
7	He regards	me	as a good friend.
8	I look upon	him	as a good friend.
9	They engaged	Rebecca	as governess.
10	We can employ	you	as a clerk.
11	They chose	Mr. Brown	as chairman.
12	We followed	them	(for) five miles.

NOTES

Unlike the adverbial particles the adverbials illustrated in this table cannot normally be placed between a verb and its object. Exceptionally this is possible, for example when the object is unusually long or when there is a contrast between two adverbials.

Please put on this table all the books from the shelves in my study and on that table all the books from the shelves in the living-room.

No. 11. This might be placed with *VP 8*. See the notes to Table No. 16.

No. 12. *(for) five miles* is an adverbial complement of distance. Cf. *VP 20*.

Table No. 23 (VP 10B)

§ **21 d.** This table gives examples of this pattern in which the adverbial is an infinitive of purpose, outcome, or result or an adverbial clause of purpose, manner, outcome, or result.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	to-*infinitive, clause, etc.*
1	I sent	Tom	to buy some stamps.
2	He brought	his brother	to see me.
3	He took	the medicine	to please his wife.
4	I shall need	only an hour	to finish the job.
5	You must do	what the doctor tells you	in order to get well again.
6	I did	it	to please my wife.
7	I don't know	her	to speak to.
8	We make	our shoes	to last.
9	He opened	the door	for the cat to go out.
10	They left	me	to do all the work.
11	Take	this book	to read during the journey.
12	They appointed	an official	to superintend the work.
13	Make	the shoes	so that they will keep out water.
14	You mustn't treat	her	as if she were a servant.
15	We found	the books	where we had left them.

NOTES

The word order in *VP 10B* may be the same as that in *VP 3*.

I want Tom to buy some stamps. (*VP 3*)
I sent Tom to buy some stamps. (*VP 10B*)

In *VP 10B* the infinitive is adverbial. Compare:

I sent Tom in order that he should buy some stamps.

No. 7. Cf. *I know her by sight.* (*VP 10A*)

No. 8. The meaning is: 'We make our shoes so that they will last.'

No. 9. Note the use of the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction. The sentence may be paraphrased: 'He opened the door so that the cat could (might) go out.'

VERB PATTERN 11

§ **22 a.** In this pattern the verb has a *that*-clause as its object. *See* and *feel* occur in this pattern when they indicate non-physical perceptions. *Hear* occurs in this pattern when it means 'learn' or

'be informed'. (For the use of these verbs when they indicate physical perceptions see *VP 1, 5,* and *6.*) *Lest* may replace *that* after a verb indicating *fear* but is rare in informal style. *That* is often omitted, especially after *think, expect, hope,* and *wish.*

The most important verbs used in this pattern are: *acknowledge, admit, believe, command, confess, declare, demand, demonstrate, deny, doubt, expect, explain, fear, feel, hear, hope, imagine, intend, know, mean, mind* (= take care), *notice, perceive, prefer, propose, request, require, report, say, see, show, specify, suggest, suppose, think, understand, urge, wish, wonder* (= be surprised to find).

Table No. 24 (VP 11A)

	Subject × *Verb*	that-*clause*
1	I suppose	(that) you will be there.
2	I wish	you wouldn't interrupt.
3	We all hope	(that) you'll be able to come.
4	Do you think	it will rain?
5	She suggested	that we should start early.
6	He intended	that you should be invited.
7	I expect	he'll be late.
8	I daresay	it's all right.
9	He said	he was busy.
10	The telegram says	that they have reached Rome.
11	We saw	that the plan would fail.
12	We felt	that you would like to know.
13	I hear	(that) you've been ill.
14	Do you doubt	that I can do it?
15	We feared	lest he should fall.

NOTES

Some intransitive verbs are used with a following *that*-clause. These verbs normally take a preposition, but a *that*-clause cannot be governed by a preposition.

He insisted upon his innocence.
He insisted that he was innocent.

For examples of such verbs, see *VP 24B*, Table No. 62.

Doubt is used in this pattern, as in Example No. 14. In the affirmative, however, *doubt* is usually construed with *whether* (*VP 15*). When the verb is negative *but that* is used (in literary and rather archaic style).

I do not doubt but that you are surprised.

The verb *fear*, as in Example No. 15, is usually replaced by *be afraid* in informal style.

We were afraid he might fall.

Table No. 25 (VP 11B)

§ 22 **b.** The preposition *to* and an indirect object may occur between the verb and the *that*-clause in some cases. The chief verbs in this pattern are *admit*, *confess*, *explain*, *suggest*, and (occasionally) *say*.

	Subject × *Verb*	to × (*Pro*)*noun*	that-*clause*
1	He admitted	to his employer	that he had made a mistake.
2	He confessed	to her	that he had spent all his money.
3	I suggested	to them	that it might be better to wait.
4	We explained	to everyone present	that the delay was inevitable.
5	She said	to him	that . . .

NOTE

No. 5. More usually: *She told him that . . .* (*VP 12*)

Table No. 26 (VP 11C)

§ 22 **c.** With the verbs *believe*, *expect*, *hear*, *hope*, *notice*, *say*, *see*, *suppose*, and *think*, an affirmative *that*-clause may be replaced by *so* and a negative *that*-clause may be replaced by *not*.

A: *The new teacher is very strict.*

B: *So I've heard* (i.e. I've heard that he is very strict) or *So I was told* (i.e. I was told that he is very strict).

A: *It's going to rain.*

B: *I hope not* (i.e. I hope that it's not going to rain).

So is, with some of these verbs, used either at the beginning or end of the sentence. *So I believe* and *I believe so* are both correct. But we do not say: ♠ *I see* (*notice*) *so.* We say: *So I see* (*notice*).

Constructions commonly used are set out below.

	So	*Subject × Verb*	*so, not*
1	So	I see (notice, believe, hear).	
2	So	I said (hoped, thought, supposed, noticed, heard).	
3	So	I've heard (seen, noticed).	
4		I believe (expect, hope, think, said, suppose)	so.
5		We believe (hope, suppose, expect, think)	not.
6		I don't think (I didn't say)	so.

NOTE

4. Past tenses are also used.

VERB PATTERN 12

§ 23. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun and a *that*-clause.

Table No. 27 (VP 12)

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	that-*clause*
1	Did he warn	you	that he might be late?
2	They told	me	that I was too early.
3	Remind	him	that the meeting is on Friday.
4	We informed	the manager	that we were willing to work overtime.
5	Has this accident taught	you	that driving at eighty miles an hour is dangerous?
6	We satisfied	ourselves	that all the doors and windows were secure.

NOTES

Some verbs in this pattern can be used in *VP 18*. Compare:

No. 1. *Did he warn you of the danger?*
No. 2. *She told me of her father's illness.*
No. 3. *Remind him of his promise.*
No. 4. *We informed him of our willingness to help.*

The chief verbs used in this pattern are the six illustrated in the table and *assure, promise.*

VERB PATTERN 13

§ 24. In this pattern the object of the verb is a conjunctive and a *to*-infinitive.

Table No. 28 (VP 13)

	Subject × *Verb*	*Conjunctive* × to-*infinitive, etc.*
1	I wonder	how to get there.
2	Do you know	how to do it?
3	I forget	where to turn off the main road.
4	She didn't know	which one to buy.
5	I don't see	how to stop him.
6	He didn't know	whether to go on or turn back.
7	We must find out	what to do next.
8	Do you know	what to look for?
9	Remember	when to turn.
10	I'll inquire	how to get there.
11	Have you settled	where to go?

NOTES

The term *conjunctive* is used for the interrogative adverbs and pronouns (*how, what, when, where, who, whom, whose, why*), and the words *whether* and *if* (= whether), when they are used to introduce dependent questions or exclamations.

When the subject of the *to*-infinitive is not the same as the subject of the main verb, *VP 15* may be used.

Cf. { *Do you know how to do it?* (I.e. How you should do it.) (*VP 13*)
{ *Do you know how your brother did it?* (*VP 15*)

VP 15 may also be used when the subject of the main verb and the *to*-infinitive is identical, but usually, in such cases, *VP 13* is to be preferred.

Do you know what to look for (*what you should look for*)?

Compare these two sentences:

Have they decided upon a site for the new school? (*VP 24*)
Have they decided where to build the new school?

The second sentence has the word order of *VP 13*. It can, however, be classified as *VP 1* (*Have they decided the question of where to build . . .?*) or as *VP 24* (*Have they decided upon where to build . . .?*) See § 35, Table No. 63.

The commonest verbs used in *VP 13* are: *ask, consider, decide, discover, explain, find out, forget, guess, hear, inquire, know, learn, observe, perceive, remember, see, settle, tell* (= explain, make clear), *think* (= consider), *understand, wonder* (= be curious to know).

VERB PATTERN 14

§ 25. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun, a conjunctive, and a *to*-infinitive.

Table No. 29 (*VP 14*)

	Subject × Verb	*(pro)noun*	*Conjunctive ×* to-*infinitive*
1	I showed	them	how to do it.
2	Please tell	me	which to take.
3	They told	the girl	where to start.
4	Will you advise	me	which to buy?
5	Show	him	where to put it.
6	Ask	your teacher	how to pronounce the word.
7	Please inform	me	where to get tickets.

NOTES

Compare these examples recomposed in *VP 16*.

No. 1. *I showed them how they should do it.*
No. 2. *Please tell me which I should take.*
No. 3. *They told the girl where she should* (*must, ought to, was to*) *start.*

The (pro)noun in this pattern is in some cases the Indirect Object and the Conjunctive × *to*-infinitive is the Direct Object.

Cf. { *I showed them how to do it.* (*VP 15*)
I showed them my books. (*VP 19*)

In other cases the (pro)noun is the Direct Object.

Cf. { *Ask your teacher how to pronounce the word.* (*VP 15*)
Ask your teacher about the pronunciation of the word. (*VP 18C*)

Cf. { *Will you advise me which to buy?* (*VP 15*)
Please advise me on this question. (*VP 18C*)

The chief verbs used in this pattern are those illustrated in the table. *Teach* is also used in this pattern.

VERB PATTERN 15

§ 26. In this pattern the object of the verb is a clause introduced by a conjunctive. This may be an exclamation or a dependent question. Or the clause may be in apposition to a noun that is to be understood. See § 80, *NP 4*. For examples of intransitive verbs used in a construction with the same word order, see § 35 c, *VP 24B*, Table No. 63.

Table No. 30 (VP 15)

	Subject × Verb	*Conjunctive × Clause*
1	Nobody will believe	how difficult this work has been.
2	I wonder	why he hasn't come.
3	Please say	where you want to go.
4	Nobody knows	whose it is.
5	I wonder	what it is.
6	I can't imagine	why she left without saying good-bye.
7	The tribunal has to decide	(the question) who the land belongs to.
8	The captain decides	who shall play in the team.
9	We were deliberating	whether we should go.
10	Can you suggest	where this should be put?
11	Few people know	how hard he works.
12	I don't know	how many there are.
13	I will ask	when the train leaves.

The chief verbs used in this pattern, in addition to those illustrated in the examples, are *discover*, *discuss*, *find out*, *reveal*, *show*, *tell* (especially in the interrogative and negative), and *understand*.

VERB PATTERN 16

§ 27. In this pattern the verb is used with a (pro)noun (which is in some cases a direct and in other cases an indirect object) and a clause introduced by a conjunctive. Cf. *VP 14*.

Table No. 31 (VP 16)

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Conjunctive × clause*
1	Tell	me	what this is.
2	Ask	him	where he put it.
3	Can you inform	me	whether this train stops at Luton?
4	Please advise	us	whether these seeds should be sown now.
5	She asked	her brother	when he would be back.
6	Can you tell	me	how high it is?
7	Everyone told	us	how well you played.

NOTES

Most of the verbs in this pattern are also used in *VP 18* or *19* or both.

Tell me your name. (*VP 19*)
Ask him his name. (*VP 19*)
Please inform me of your decision. (*VP 18*)
I was told of your success. (*VP 18*)

The chief verbs used in this pattern are the verbs illustrated in the examples, and *show* and *teach*.

VERB PATTERN 17

§ 28. In this pattern the verb has a gerund as its object. The pattern is subdivided.

Table No. 32 (VP 17A)

§ 28 a. The verbs illustrated in this table have a gerund as the direct object. In some cases the verb may be used with a *to*-infinitive but in a different pattern, as shown in the examples and notes. It may be an infinitive of purpose. Or the *to*-infinitive

may be used when the meaning of the verb varies. (See *forget* below.)

	Subject × Verb	*Gerund, etc.*
1	Please stop	talking.
2	Has it stopped	raining yet?
3	Has it left off	raining yet?
4	Have you finished	talking?
5	Please excuse	my being so late.
6	We must go on	working.
7	She enjoys	playing tennis.
8	I shall never forget	hearing you sing.
9	I remember	doing it.
10	Don't give up	trying.
11	The boy went on	looking for the money he had lost.
12	She couldn't help	laughing.
13	Would you mind	coming earlier next time?
14	Do you mind	my staying out late?
15	You should practise	playing the piano regularly.
16	Why don't you stop	beating your wife?
17	Try	cleaning it with petrol.

NOTES

No. 1. Cf. *We stopped to talk* (*VP 25A*). This means: 'We stopped (doing something) in order to talk.'

No. 2. Cf. *Has the rain stopped yet?*

No. 3. *Leave off* means 'stop'. Cf. *Has the rain left off yet?* Note that *come on*, used as an impersonal verb and as the opposite of *leave off*, is never used with a gerund. It is used in *VP 2*. *It has come on* (begun) *to rain.*

No. 5. Cf. *Please excuse me for being late.* See also the note '(Pro)noun or Possessive?' after Table No. 12.

No. 6. Cf. *He went on to say that . . .* (*VP 25C*). This means: 'He continued and next said that . . .'

No. 8. Cf. *I forgot to post the letter.* See the note on Example No. 11 in Table No. 2.

No. 9. Cf. *I remembered to do it* (*VP 2*). See the note on Example No. 10 in Table No. 2.

No. 10. *Give up* here means 'stop'.

No. 12. The verb *help* is not used in this pattern except in the phrase *can't (couldn't) help.*

No. 17. *Try* here means 'make the experiment of' (in order to learn). Cf. *try*, *VP 2*, 'make an attempt or effort'.

Verbs used in *VP 17A* are: *admit, advise, avoid, consider, defend, enjoy, excuse, fancy, fear, finish, forbid, forget, give up* (= stop), *go on* (= continue), *(can't) help, keep (on), leave off* (= stop), *mind, miss, practise, remember, risk, (can't) stand, stop, suggest, try, understand.*

Table No. 33 (VP 17B)

§28 b. The verbs used in this table are also used in *VP 2*. For the difference (e.g. between *like swimming* and *like to swim*) see the notes.

	Subject × Verb	*Gerund, etc.*
1	She likes	swimming.
2	He began	talking.
3	Don't start	borrowing money.
4	She loves	going to the cinema.
5	I hate	refusing every time.
6	I hate	having to refuse every time.
7	He prefers	staying indoors during the cold weather.
8	You must continue	making efforts.
9	She can't bear	seeing the children cold and hungry.
10	He can't endure	being disturbed in his work.

NOTES

After verbs indicating (dis)like and preference, the gerund (*VP 17B*) is used for general statements; the *to*-infinitive (*VP 2*) is preferred for statements about a particular occasion, especially when the verb is used with *would* or *should*.

I like swimming.
I should not like to swim in that cold lake.
Would you like to go for a swim this afternoon?

They prefer staying indoors when the weather is cold.
Would you prefer to stay at home this evening?
I should prefer not to go.

I should like to go to the theatre with you this week; I don't like going alone.

It is difficult to make clear distinctions between the use of *VP 17B* and *VP 2* with the verbs *begin* and *start*.

He began borrowing (began to borrow) money.

When these verbs are used in the progressive tenses, *VP 2* is preferred (to avoid the repetition of *-ing*).

It's beginning to rain. (Not ♠ *It's beginning raining.*)
He is beginning to study English. (Not ♠ *He is beginning studying English.*)

Understand (and *see* when it means 'understand') and *realize* are always used in the infinitive after *begin*.

He began to understand (*see*) *how it was done.*

The phrasal verb *set about* (begin, make a start at) is used with the gerund.

As soon as the floods went down, we set about repairing the damage.

Start out is used with an infinitive, not a gerund.

He started out to write his report on the accident.

Regret is used in *VP 2, 11,* and *17*. When used in *VP 17* the reference is to something that precedes.

Cf. { *I regret not having worked harder at school.*
I regret that I didn't work harder at school. (*VP 11*)

Cf. { *I regret having followed his advice.*
I regret that I followed his advice.

When *VP 2* is used, the reference is to present time.

I regret to inform you that . . .
I regret to have to inform you that . . .
(i.e. I regret that I must *now* inform you that . . .)

The chief verbs used in *VP 17B* are: (*can't*) *bear; begin; commence; continue; endure; hate; intend;* (*dis*)*like; love; mean* (= intend); *prefer; regret; start.*

Table No. 34 (VP 17C)

§ 28 c. The gerunds used after the verbs in this table are equivalent to passive infinitives.

	Subject × Verb	*Gerund, etc.*
1	My shoes want	mending.
2	Your work needs	correcting.
3	He will need	looking after.
4	His language won't bear	repeating.
5	It won't bear	thinking of.

NOTES

No. 1. *My shoes need to be mended.*
No. 2. *Your work needs to be corrected.*
No. 3. *He will need to be looked after.*
No. 4. *His language is not fit to be repeated* (i.e. is too bad, too full of swear words, etc.).
No. 5. *It is too horrible (frightening, etc.) to think of.*

Bear is used with *won't* or *wouldn't* in this pattern. When *bear* means 'endure', either the gerund or the infinitive may be used.

He can't bear (endure) being disturbed.
He can't bear (endure) to be disturbed.

VERB PATTERN 18

§29. A verb used in this pattern is followed first by a Direct Object and then by a preposition governing an Indirect Object. There are five tables for this pattern.

Table No. 35 (VP 18A)

§29 a. This table gives examples of verbs with the preposition *to*. Verbs used in *VP 18A* may also be used in *VP 19A*. See the notes for examples. *VP 18A* is preferred to *VP 19A* when the Indirect Object is longer than the Direct Object and when the Indirect Object is phonetically heavier (e.g. when it is stressed). *VP 19A* is preferred when the Indirect Object is short (e.g. a personal pronoun) and when the Direct Object is stressed or is more important.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*to*	*(Pro)noun*
1	He read	the letter	to	all his friends.
2	He offered	some	to	everyone in the room.
3	He sold	his car	to	a man from Leeds.
4	I still owe	money	to	my tailor.
5	I don't lend	my books	to	anybody.
6	Please pass	this note	to	the man in the corner.
7	He promised	the money	to	me, not (to) you.
8	Please take	these books	to	your brother.
9	Will you hand	this letter	to	the secretary of the society?
10	They told	the news	to	everybody in the village.
11	Don't show	the letter	to	any of your friends.
12	I have written	letters	to	most of my old pupils.
13	Bring	the box	to	me, not (to) my brother.

NOTES

Compare *VP 19A.*

No. 1. *He read me the letter.*
No. 2. *He offered me some.*
No. 3. *Will you sell me your car?*
No. 4. *I still owe him ten pounds.*

In examples 7 and 13 the Indirect Object is stressed and is, for this reason, placed at the end. Compare:

He promised me a good birthday present.
Bring me the box.

When both Direct and Indirect Objects are short personal pronouns, the word order shown in the Tables is not always followed. Instead of *Give me it* (for 'Give me the book'), *Give it me* is often used. Although *Give me it* and *Give it to me* are the 'correct' forms, *Give it me* has now become established.

In the passive construction either the Direct or the Indirect Object may become the subject.

They offered the position to Mr. Green.
The position was offered to Mr. Green.
Mr. Green was offered the position.

The passive is used only when it is desired to make one of the objects prominent, or when the subject is vague or unimportant. The choice of Direct or Indirect Object depends upon which is to be made prominent.

They gave a prize to Mr. Black.
Mr. Black was given a prize. (*Mr. Black* is given prominence.)
They gave the first prize to Mr. Black.
The first prize was given to Mr. Black. (Prominence on *the first prize.*)

This alternative construction is not always possible. It is not used, for example, with the verb *write.*

The secretary wrote a long letter to Mr. Brown.
A long letter was written to Mr. Brown. But not: ♤ *Mr. Brown was written a long letter.*

The most important verbs used in this pattern are: *allot, allow, award, bring, deny,* do (do good to somebody, do somebody good), *fetch, give, grant, hand, lend, offer, owe, pass, pay, permit, proffer, promise, read, refuse, render, restore, sell, send, show, take, teach, tell, write.*

Table No. 36 (VP 18B)

§ 29 b. This table gives examples of verbs with the preposition *for*. Verbs used in *VP 18B* may also be used in *VP 19B*. The choice between *VP 18B* and *VP 19B* is made on the same principles as that between *VP 18A* and *VP 19A*.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*for*	*(Pro)noun*
1	She bought	a dictionary	for	her brother.
2	Have you left	any food	for	the other members of the party?
3	She has made	coffee	for	all of us.
4	Will you cook	these eggs	for	Mrs. Grey and her children?
5	She ordered	a new dress	for	herself.
6	Please save	some	for	your sister.
7	We must choose	presents	for	your brothers and sisters.

NOTES

Compare *VP 19B*.

No. 1. *I bought her a new hat.*
No. 2. *Have you left me any?*
No. 3. *I'll make you some coffee.*
No. 5. *She ordered herself a new dress.*

Verbs used in *VP 18B* are: *bring, buy, cash, choose, cook, do, fetch, get, leave, make, order, paint, play, reach, save, spare, write.*

The use of some of these verbs in *VP 19B* is often rather colloquial. E.g.

Please reach my hat for me. (*VP 18*)
Please reach me my hat. (*VP 19*)

He made up a parcel of books for me. (*VP 18*)
He made me up a parcel of books. (*VP 19*)

Won't you play a Beethoven sonata for me? (*VP 18*)
Won't you play me a Beethoven sonata? (*VP 19*)

Can you cash this cheque for me? (*VP 18*)
Can you cash me a cheque? (*VP 19*)

Table No. 37 (VP 18C)

§ 29 c. This table gives examples of a large class of verbs used with a Direct Object which is followed by a preposition and a prepositional object. The verb has to be learnt in the pattern.

E.g. *to congratulate somebody (up)on something*. Verbs in this class are not used in *VP 19*. Some of the verbs are used with two or more different prepositions, e.g. *to compare one thing with (to) another thing*. The differences in meaning can be found in dictionaries. The object of the preposition may be a clause, as in example 10.

VP 18C must be distinguished from *VP 10* as shown in Table No. 22. In the sentence *Put the book on the table* the words *on the table* are an adverbial phrase (comparable to such adverbs as *there, here, down*) which is variable. The phrase could be replaced by *under (near, by) the table*. In *VP 18C* the preposition must be learnt with the verb.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*Prep.*	*(Pro)noun*
1	We congratulated	him	on	his success.
2	They accused	her	of	taking the money.
3	He spends	a lot of money	on	books.
4	I have spent	a lot of time	on	this question.
5	Don't waste	your time	on	useless things.
6	What prevented	you	from	coming earlier?
7	Thank	you	for	your kind help.
8	I must remind	him	about	it.
9	She reminds	me	of	her mother.
10	That reminds	me	*of*	how I once won a competition.
11	Excuse	me	for	being late.
12	I explained	my difficulty	to	him.
13	Add	this	to	what you already have.
14	Compare	the copy	with	the original.
15	He compared	the heart	to	a pump.
16	Who will protect	us	from	the enemy?
17	Please keep	this	for	me.

Table No. 38 (VP 18C)

§ 29 d. The preposition and its object may occasionally precede the Direct Object. This reversal of the normal order may be needed to avoid ambiguity or because the Direct Object is much

longer than the Prepositional Object. Cf. *VP 11B*, Table No. 25, in which the Direct Object is a *that*-clause.

	Subject × Verb	*Prep.*	*(Pro)noun*	*Direct Object*
1	I explained	to	him	the impossibility of granting his request.
2	We heard	from	Jones	all about his sister's escape.
3	Add	to	the examples you already have	those I have written on the blackboard.
4	She expressed	to	her husband	her conviction that economy was essential.

NOTES

No. 2. Cf. *We heard all about his sister's escape from Jones.* This is *VP 1*. It suggests that the speaker's sister escaped from Jones and that we heard all about the incident.

No. 3. This can be recomposed in the normal order. *Add the examples I have written on the blackboard to those you already have.* As both objects are long there is little to choose between the two versions.

No. 4. The phrase *to her husband* is placed before the Direct Object because if placed at the end it might be taken as going with the adjective *essential*.

Table No. 39 (VP 18C)

§ 29 e. This table illustrates *VP 18C* when the Direct Object is

	Subject × Verb	*it*	*Prep.*	*(Pro)noun*	*Direct Object*
1	I must leave	it	to	your own judgement	to decide whether you should come or not.
2	We owe	it	to	society	to help in the apprehension of criminals.
3	He owes	it	to	his father's influence	that the Committee appointed him to the position.
4	You mustn't take	it	upon	yourself	to spend such large sums of money without getting the Treasurer's approval.
5	I put	it	to	you	whether this man could have acted in such a cruel way.

an infinitive phrase or a clause. Preparatory *it* is used after the verb and the Direct Object is placed last.

NOTES

Compare the examples below, in which the verbs are used with short direct objects.

No. 1. *I must leave the decision to your own judgement.*
No. 2. *We owe a duty to society.*
No. 3. *He owes his appointment to his father's influence.*
No. 4. *You mustn't take too much upon yourself.*
No. 5. *I put the question to you.*

VERB PATTERN 19

§ **30**. Verbs used in this pattern have two objects, an Indirect Object followed by a Direct Object. Three tables are used to illustrate the pattern.

Table No. 40 (VP 19A)

§ **30 a**. This table gives examples of verbs that are also used in *VP 18A* (with the preposition *to*). See the list with *VP 18A*.

	Subject × Verb	*I.O.*	*D.O.*
1	Have they paid	you	the money?
2	Will you lend	me	your pen?
3	He handed	her	the letter.
4	Please pass	me	the salt.
5	Will you send	her	some?
6	Won't you tell	us	a story?
7	Did it cause	you	much trouble?
8	The pupils wished	their teacher	'Good morning'.
9	The teacher gave	them	an English lesson.
10	He denies	her	nothing.
11	Show	me	your hands.
12	I will read	you	the letter.
13	You must write	her	a letter.
14	Please throw	me	that magazine.
15	I never gave	the matter	a thought.
16	Don't give	it	a second thought.
17	Don't give	yourself	airs.

NOTES

VP 19 is preferred when the Indirect Object is shorter than the Direct Object. Note the personal pronouns in the table above. Compare the examples in Table No. 35.

The last example, No. 17, cannot be converted to *VP 18A*.

Table No. 41 (VP 19B)

§ 30 b. This table gives examples of verbs that are also used in *VP 18B* (with the preposition *for*). See the list with *VP 18B*.

	Subject × Verb	*I.O.*	*D.O.*
1	Will you buy	me	some?
2	Did you leave	me	any?
3	She made	herself	a new dress.
4	He ordered	himself	a good dinner.
5	We must choose	Mary	a good birthday present.
6	His parents chose	him	a sensible but plain-looking wife.
7	Can you get	me	a copy of that book?
8	She cooked	her husband	a pound of sausages.
9	Will you do	me	a favour?
10	You should get	yourself	a new hat.
11	Will you reach	me	my hat?
12	Can you spare	me	a few minutes of your valuable time?

NOTES

Here are examples of some of these sentences in *VP 18B*.

No. 1. *Will you buy some for your brothers and sisters?*
No. 5. *We must choose good birthday presents for Mary and Joan.*
No. 11. *Will you reach my hat for me?*

In No. 12 *a few minutes of your valuable time* is the Direct Object of *spare*. Cf. *Can you spare me a few minutes* (in *VP 20A*) in which *a few minutes* (with *for* omitted) is an adverbial complement of time. It means: 'Can you do without me for a few minutes? May I go out or away for a few minutes?' The insertion of *for* makes the sentence unambiguous. Cf. *We followed them (for) five miles.* (*VP 20A*).

Table No. 42 (VP 19C)

§ **30 c.** This table illustrates a small number of verbs that have two objects that cannot easily be distinguished as direct or indirect or of verbs that are only rarely used in *VP 18*.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*(Pro)noun*
1	We asked	him	several questions.
2	Ask	him	his name.
3	I envy	you	your fine garden.
4	That will save	me	a lot of trouble.
5	Can't I save	you	the trouble of doing that?
6	I struck	the door	a heavy blow.

NOTES

It is possible to use the construction *ask a question of someone* but *VP 19C* is the usual construction.

Envy is not used in *VP 18* (though the noun is used with *of* and *at: to feel envy of* or *at something*).

Save is rarely used with *to*, chiefly in the passive.

All this trouble would be saved to them if . . .

A preferable passive construction is:

They would be saved all this trouble if . . .

Strike may be used with *on* or *against* but *VP 19C* is preferable.

VERB PATTERN 20

§ **31.** This is the first pattern illustrating verbs used intransitively. In this pattern the verb is used with an adverbial adjunct of distance, duration, weight, price, etc. Before expressions of distance and duration *for* may be used. It is often dropped.

With the verbs *cost*, *last*, and *take* an indirect object may occur before the adverbial adjunct.

The verbs used in this pattern are too numerous to be listed. They comprise all verbs that denote movement, such as *come*, *go*, *walk*, *ride*, *fly*, *fall*, *run*, *jump*, *sail*, *sink*, *slip*.

Table No. 43 (VP 20)

	Subject × Verb	*(I.O.)*	*Adverbial Adjunct*
1	We walked		(for) five miles.
2	He has travelled		thousands of miles.
3	They had come		a long way.
4	Have you ridden		far?
5	The forests stretch		(for) hundreds of miles.
6	He fell		fifty feet.
7	The soldiers marched		a long way.
8	The rain lasted		all day.
9	We waited		(for) two hours.
10	The meeting lasted		(for) two hours.
11	He may live		(for) many years yet.
12	Have you been working		a long time?
13	The play ran		(for) more than a hundred nights.
14	Won't you stay		(for) the night?
15	The book costs		ten shillings.
16	The book cost	(me)	ten shillings.
17	The baby weighs		nine pounds.
18	The thermometer rose		ten degrees.
19	The temperature fell		several degrees.
20	The work took	(them)	three hours.
21	These shoes will last	(you)	two or three years.
22	It will last	(the owner)	a lifetime.
23	The desk measures		four feet by two feet.

NOTES

The verb *be* can be used in this pattern with adverbial adjuncts.

I shall be here (for) two weeks.

Note the possibility of *for* governing the whole phrase *getting on for* (a period of time).

We have been here for getting on for ten months (i.e. for a period of time that is now almost ten months).

Be may also replace *cost*, *weigh*, *measure*, etc.

This book is ten shillings.

Example No. 20 can be recomposed with preparatory *it*.

It took them three hours to do the work.

Table No. 42 (VP 19C)

§ **30 c.** This table illustrates a small number of verbs that have two objects that cannot easily be distinguished as direct or indirect or of verbs that are only rarely used in *VP 18*.

	Subject × Verb	*(Pro)noun*	*(Pro)noun*
1	We asked	him	several questions.
2	Ask	him	his name.
3	I envy	you	your fine garden.
4	That will save	me	a lot of trouble.
5	Can't I save	you	the trouble of doing that?
6	I struck	the door	a heavy blow.

NOTES

It is possible to use the construction *ask a question of someone* but *VP 19C* is the usual construction.

Envy is not used in *VP 18* (though the noun is used with *of* and *at*: *to feel envy of* or *at something*).

Save is rarely used with *to*, chiefly in the passive.

All this trouble would be saved to them if . . .

A preferable passive construction is:

They would be saved all this trouble if . . .

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VERB PATTERN 20

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With the verbs *cost*, *last*, and *take* an indirect object may occur before the adverbial adjunct.

The verbs used in this pattern are too numerous to be listed. They comprise all verbs that denote movement, such as *come*, *go*, *walk*, *ride*, *fly*, *fall*, *run*, *jump*, *sail*, *sink*, *slip*.

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7	The soldiers marched		a long way.
8	The rain lasted		all day.
9	We waited		(for) two hours.
10	The meeting lasted		(for) two hours.
11	He may live		(for) many years yet.
12	Have you been working		a long time?
13	The play ran		(for) more than a hundred nights.
14	Won't you stay		(for) the night?
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21	These shoes will last	(you)	two or three years.
22	It will last	(the owner)	a lifetime.
23	The desk measures		four feet by two feet.

NOTES

The verb *be* can be used in this pattern with adverbial adjuncts.

I shall be here (for) two weeks.

Note the possibility of *for* governing the whole phrase *getting on for* (+ period of time).

We have been here for getting on for ten months (i.e. for a period of time that is now almost ten months).

Be may also replace *cost*, *weigh*, *measure*, etc.

This book is ten shillings.

Example No. 20 can be recomposed with preparatory *it*.

It took them three hours to do the work.

VERB PATTERN 21

§ **32.** Some verbs are completely intransitive. They may be used without a complement or adjunct. Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively. Compare:

I rolled the ball. (*VP 1*)
The ball rolled. (*VP 21*)

Table No. 44 (VP 21)

§ **32 a.** This table gives examples of the pattern in its simplest form.

	Subject	*Verb*
1	We all	breathe, eat, and drink.
2	The sun	was shining.
3	The moon	rose.
4	Fire	burns.
5	Fishes	swim.
6	Nothing	matters.
7	Who	cares?
8	It	was raining.
9	What I said	does not matter.
10	(Men pass away but) the universe	remains.

Table No. 45 (VP 21)

§ **32 b.** When the subject of the verb *be* is indefinite the construction with preparatory *there* is preferred. This *there* now has no meaning. Originally it was an adverb of place but the adverb of place *there* must now be looked upon as a different word. *There was a large crowd* (not ♠ *A large crowd was*). Cf. *There's your hat*, in which *there* (strong form, stressed) is the adverb of place. See § 34 c, *VP 23B*, Table No. 59.

Preparatory *there* is also used with other verbs in literary, especially narrative, style, when the subject is indefinite.

	There × *Verb*	*Subject*
1	There was	no wind.
2	There won't be	enough time.
3	There's	no doubt about it.
4	There have been	many such incidents.
5	There is	no time for us to visit the Museum now.
6	There is	a man to see you.
7	There entered	a strange-looking little man.
8	There was	every reason for him to be satisfied.
9	There's	no denying the fact that . . .
10	There was	much foolish talking.
11	There's	no getting over it.
12	There is	a map on page five.
13	There was	very little work done that day.

NOTES

Nos. 9 and 11 illustrate an interesting use of the gerund with *no*. '*There's no* × gerund' may be used to indicate impossibility.

No. 9. *We cannot deny the fact that . . .* or *The fact that . . . cannot be denied.*

No. 11. *We cannot evade, ignore, get away from* (this fact, etc., according to context), or, literally, *we cannot get over* (this fence, wall, or other obstacle).

No. 12. *A map is on page five* is not typical of spoken English but might be found in a newspaper.

No. 13. The alternative construction *Very little work was done that day* is equally acceptable.

Table No. 46 (VP 21)

§ 32 c. When the subject is an infinitive phrase or a clause, preparatory *it* is used. Instead of ♤ *That he had been ill appears*, we prefer *It appears that he had been ill.*

This table gives examples of this variation of the pattern.

	It× *Verb*	*Subject*
1	It doesn't matter	whether we start now or later.
2	Does it matter	when we start?
3	It seems	(that) Mr. White is heavily in debt.
4	It would seem	that Mr. Grey wants to retire.
5	It seemed	that the day would never end.
6	It (so) happened	that I was out of London at the time.
7	It (so) chanced	that we were out when she called.
8	It seems (to me)	you're not really interested in the question.

NOTES

Note the possible use of *so* with *happen* and *chance*.

Seem and *appear*, when used as in this pattern, are impersonal verbs. *It seems* (*seemed, appears, appeared*) may be placed in the middle of a long sentence, or occasionally at the end. They are equivalent to the adverbs *seemingly* and *apparently*.

It seemed that the road over the pass was still blocked by snowdrifts.
The road over the pass was still, it seemed, blocked by snowdrifts.

Happen and *chance* are also impersonal verbs in this pattern, equivalent to the adverb phrase *by chance*. Note the alternative constructions in which *chance* and *happen* are used in *VP 25D*. See § 36 d, Table No. 67.

No. 6. *I happened to be out of London at the time.*
No. 7. *We chanced to be out when she called.*

VERB PATTERN 22

§ 33. Many intransitive verbs require a subject complement. This complement may be a (pro)noun, a gerund, an adjective, an adverb or prepositional phrase (often equivalent to an adjective), or a clause.

Table No. 47 (VP 22A)

§ 33 a. In this table the verb is *be*. The complement is a (pro)noun or adjective or *that*-clause.

The lower half of the table illustrates this pattern when the subject complement comes first.

	Subject × Verb (be)	*Subject Complement*
1	This is	a book.
2	His father is	a lawyer.
3	That house is	the doctor's.
4	That box is	mine.
5	What is	that?
6	Who is	she?
7	It is	I (me).
8	The total is	seventy-three.
9	It was	dark.
10	Seeing is	believing.
11	That will be	enough.
12	Is this	the first time?
13	We were	ready to start.
14	These shoes are	just the right size.
15	The two boys are	exactly the same weight.
16	The statue will be	life-size.
17	That he will refuse is	impossible.
18	Whether he will agree is	another question.
19	The trouble is	that we are short of money.
20	Is this	what you are looking for?
21	What surprised me most was	that they were so cheerful about their loss.
22	Everything is	as it should be.
23	This is	where I work.
24	Everything was	just as we had left it.
	Subject Complement	*Subject × Verb*
25	What price	is that article?
26	What	are cabbages today?
27	What age	is he?

NOTE

No. 26. *What* means 'What price?', 'How much?'
Note the word order in exclamatory sentences with *how* and *what*:

How tall you are!
What a high tree that is!

Table No. 48 (VP 22A)

§ **33 b.** In this table the verb is again *be.* The complement is an adverb or prepositional phrase. The phrase is often the same as or almost the same as an adjective, e.g. *at liberty* (free), *in love with* (very fond of), *beyond me* (too difficult for me), *out of danger* (safe), *in foal* (pregnant). Compare *VP 23* in which the adverb or adverb phrase modifies the verb (e.g. *The book was on the desk*).

	Subject × *Verb* (be)	*Adverb or Prepositional Phrase*
1	The war is	over.
2	Everything is	at an end between them.
3	She is	in good health.
4	Is he	in love?
5	We were all	out of breath.
6	Are these boats	for hire?
7	Are you	in a hurry?
8	The fruit is	far from ripe.
9	Everything else is	of no account.
10	At last we were	at liberty.
11	The book is	beyond me.
12	Is he	of age?
13	We are not	out of danger yet.
14	The teacher was	in a bad temper.
15	The mare is	in foal.
16	It is	of no importance.
17	Everything is	in good order.
18	The machine is	out of order.

Table No. 49 (VP 22A)

§ 33 c. In some cases the verb *be* may be followed by an infinitive phrase as complement. This table gives examples.

	Subject × to be	*Infinitive, etc.*
1	This house is	to let.
2	The worst is	still to come.
3	What's	to pay?
4	Who is	to blame?
5	The causes are not	far to seek.
6	You are	to be congratulated.
7	My aim was	to help you.
8	To know her is	to like her.
9	To know all is	to forgive all.

NOTES

No. 3. More usually: *How much is there to pay?*
No. 4. Also: *Who is to be blamed?*
No. 5. i.e. One need not go far to find the causes.

Table No. 50 (VP 22B)

§ 33 d. When the subject of the verb *be* is an infinitive phrase the construction with preparatory *it* is preferred. Examples are given in this table.

	It × *to be*	*Subject Complement*	*Subject*
1	It is	easy	to do that.
2	It was	useless	to try.
3	It will be	wiser	to drive slowly.
4	It's	a pity	to waste it.
5	It would be	a mistake	to ignore his advice.

Table No. 51 (VP 22B)

§ 33 e. Preparatory *it* is also used when the subject is a phrase that includes a gerund.

	It × *to be*	*Subject Complement*	*Subject*
1	It's	no use	your trying to do that.
2	It's	no good	hoping for their help.
3	It won't be	much good	complaining to the authorities.
4	It wouldn't be	any good	my talking to him.
5	It's	no use	crying over spilt milk.
6	It wasn't	much use	my pretending that I didn't know the rules.
7	It was	a difficult business	getting everything ready in time.
8	It's	foolish	behaving like that.

NOTES

Many of these examples can be recomposed in the construction illustrated in Table No. 53.

No. 6. *It wasn't much use for me to pretend that . . .*

No. 8. *It's foolish for you* (*her, them, etc.*) *to behave like that.*

This construction is very common after *it's no* (*not much*) *use* (*good*).

Certain exclamatory types of sentence with *what* and *how* seem to belong to this pattern. The *it is* (*was*) is dropped.

What a nuisance having to wait an hour for the next bus! (= *Having to wait an hour for the next bus is a nuisance,* or *It's a nuisance having to wait an hour for the next bus.*)

What a nuisance turning us out so early! (= *Their turning us out so early* (i.e. the fact that they make us get out so early) *is a nuisance.*)

How annoying having to stand all the way home in the bus! (= *Having to stand . . . is annoying.*)

Such sentences, without a finite verb, and with a gerund, etc., as the subject, are frequent in colloquial style. An infinitive phrase may also be used.

What a bore to have to wait an hour for the next bus!

Table No. 52 (VP 22B)

§ 33 f. Preparatory *it* is used when the subject is a clause.

	It × *to be*	*Subject Complement*	*Subject*
1	It was	a pity	(that) you couldn't come.
2	It was	unfortunate	that the weather was so wet.
3	It's	strange	that he should have said that.
4	It's	splendid news	that you have won the scholarship.
5	It's	likely	that there will be rain before evening.
6	It's	a mystery	how the burglars got into the house.
7	It was	curious	how often one saw them together.
8	It's	doubtful	whether he will be able to come.
9	Is it	possible	that he misunderstood what I said?
10	Is it	true	that he is going to retire next year?
11	It's	a wonder	you weren't all killed!
12	It will be	a great day	when you are promoted to be managing director.
13	Is it	a fact	that you're going to be married?
14	It's	a mystery	why all our attempts have been unsuccessful.
15	It was	a good thing	(that) you reached home before the storm broke.
16	It was	obvious	that he didn't intend to help us.

Table No. 53 (VP 22B)

§ 33 g. Preparatory *it* is used when the subject is the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction.

	It × *to be*	*Subject Complement*	*Subject*
1	It was	hard	for him to live on his small pension.
2	Is it	easy	for a rich widow to find a handsome husband?
3	It was	unusual	for Victorian ladies to earn their own living.
4	It was	the rule	for men and women to sit apart.
5	It is	no uncommon thing	for her husband to be away from home for weeks at a time.
6	Isn't it	wrong	for the neighbours to gossip about us in that cruel way?
7	It's	impossible	for our two countries ever to quarrel.
8	It's	impossible	for there to be a war between your country and mine.
9	Is it	the custom	for young people to give up their seats to old people in crowded buses in your country?
10	It's	difficult	for anyone to be angry with her.

Table No. 54 (VP 22C)

§ 33 h. The verbs *seem* and *appear* are used in *VP 22*. The infinitive *to be* may be understood after the verb. This use of the two verbs is then the same as that in *VP 25D* (illustrated in Table No. 67). The preposition *to* with a (pro)noun may be included in

the pattern, normally after the verb, but also, for emphasis, at the beginning of the sentence.

	Subject × Verb	*Subject Complement*
1	He seemed	surprised at the news.
2	He seemed	much older.
3	This seems (to be)	an important point.
4	The situation seemed (to us)	quite hopeless.
5	This appears to be	the only exception to the rule.
6	To me his new book does not appear (to be)	so good as his earlier book on this subject.
7	I seem (to be)	unable to solve this problem.
8	He seemed	unable to get out of the habit.

NOTES

The last two examples may be recomposed (colloquial style) with *can*.
No. 7. *I can't seem to solve this problem.*
No. 8. *He couldn't seem to get out of the habit.*

Table No. 55 (VP 22C)

§ 33 i. Preparatory *it* is also used with *seem* and *appear* when the

	It × Verb	*Subject Complement*	*Subject*
1	It seemed	useless	to go on.
2	It seems	a pity	not to use it.
3	It seemed (to me)	a bold plan	to advance against such strong opposition.
4	It doesn't seem	much good	going on.
5	It appears	unlikely	that we shall arrive in time.
6	It doesn't seem	much use	for us to try to catch the two o'clock train.

subject is an infinitive phrase, a gerundial phrase, a clause, etc. Cf. Tables Nos. 50 to 53 for this construction with *be*.

Table No. 56 (VP 22D)

§ **33 j.** This table illustrates some of the very numerous other verbs that may be used in *VP 22*. Other examples can be found in §§ 61–71 (Inchoative Verbs).

	Subject × Verb	*Subject Complement*
1	The leaves are turning	brown.
2	The dinner smells	good.
3	Why is he looking	angry?
4	He is growing	old.
5	Silk feels	soft and smooth.
6	This sentence doesn't sound	right.
7	She married	young.
8	Everything looks	different.
9	Please keep	quiet.
10	The door blew	open.
11	The fire has burnt	low.
12	He shammed	dead.
13	He fell	in love.
14	One of the tigers broke	loose.
15	He went	mad.
16	Your dreams may come	true.
17	He still remains	poor.
18	The city lies	sleeping.
19	The birds came	hopping round my window.

VERB PATTERN 23

§ **34.** Verbs in this pattern have an adverbial complement.

Table No. 57 (VP 23A)

§ 34 a. This is the pattern in its simplest form.

	Subject × Verb	*Adverbial Complement*
1	Come	in.
2	Stand	up.
3	We must turn	back.
4	She went	upstairs.
5	He arrived	home late.
6	We didn't go	anywhere last week.
7	We talked	face to face.
8	They were fighting	tooth and nail.
9	The books were lying	on the floor.
10	It looks	like rain.
11	I will live	a bachelor.
12	He works	hard.
13	It looks	as if it were going to snow.
14	He looks	as though he had seen a ghost.
15	He behaves (acts)	as if he owned the place.
16	This old umbrella has stood me	in good stead.

NOTE

In the last example there is an Indirect Object (*me*).

See § 106 b, c on the Adverbial Particles for examples of this pattern with inversion of subject and finite verb. (E.g. *In they went!*) Cf. § 34 c.

Table No. 58 (VP 23A)

§ 34 b. This table illustrates *VP* 23 with preparatory *there*. This

	There × *Verb* × *Subject*	*Adverbial Complement*
1	There are three windows	in this room.
2	There are some boys	at the door.
3	There comes an end	to all things.
4	Are there many apples	on your trees this year?
5	There are many churches	there.

pattern is preferred when the subject is indefinite. Instead of ♠ *A book is on the desk*, we prefer *There is a book on the desk*. Compare *there*, adverb of place and direction, in Table No. 59.

NOTE

In the last example the first *there* is introductory *there* (unstressed); the second *there* (spoken with the strong form) is the adverb of place.

Table No. 59 (VP 23B)

§ **34 c.** The adverbs of place and direction *here* and *there* normally have end position. They may have front position in exclamatory style. When the subject is a personal pronoun (as in examples 1 to 5), the subject precedes the verb. When the subject is not a personal pronoun (as in examples 6 to 11), the subject follows the verb.

	Here There	*Subject* × *Verb*
1	Here	they come!
2	Here	it is!
3	There	she goes!
4	There	they come!
5	Here	you are!
		Verb × *Subject*
6	Here	's your book!
7	There	comes the station bus!
8	Here	are the papers you've been looking for!
9	There	are the other members of the party!
10	There	are the others!
11	Here	's the one you want!

NOTES

Here and *there* are stressed. *There* is always spoken with the strong form [ðeə*], not with the weak form [ðə*].

The exclamation 'Here you are!' may mean, according to context, either 'You are here, you've arrived', or 'Here is what you need, what you were asking for, etc.' In the same way the exclamation 'There you are!'

may mean, 'There is what you need, what you were asking for, etc.' For a similar pattern with an adverbial particle, see § 106 b.

VERB PATTERN 24

§ 35. When a verb is closely linked with a preposition, the verb and the preposition must be learned as a unit: thus, *succeed in* (something, doing something), *belong to* (somebody). Many verbs may be used with more than one preposition: thus, *complain to* (somebody), *complain about* (or *of*) (something).

Verbs of this class are illustrated in the next four tables. They are too numerous to be listed.

Table No. 60 (VP 24A)

§ 35 a. The prepositional object is a (pro)noun or gerund.

	Subject × Verb	*Prep.*	*Prepositional Object*
1	You can rely	upon	that man.
2	You can rely	upon	his discretion.
3	You can rely	upon	his being discreet.
4	Can I count	on	your help?
5	The success of the picnic will depend	on	the weather.
6	He succeeded	in	solving the problem.
7	Do you believe	in	getting up early?
8	He failed	in	his examinations.
9	They all longed	for	the holidays.
10	You needn't wait	for	me.
11	This belongs	to	me.
12	Have you decided	upon	a career yet?
13	Listen	to	what I have to say.
14	What has happened	to	them?
15	He aimed	at	the tiger.
16	He consented	to	the proposal.
17	We agreed	upon	a plan.
18	Would you care	for	one of these?
19	She complained	of	the heat.

Note the order in a relative clause.

He is a man I can rely on. (Informal)
He is a man upon whom I can rely. (Formal)

What was the proposal you consented to? (Informal)
What was the proposal to which you consented? (Formal)

The proposal he consented to . . . (Informal)
The proposal to which he consented . . . (Formal)

Note also:

You have nothing to complain of. (Informal)
You have nothing of which to complain. (Formal)

In the passive voice the preposition comes at the end.

That man can be relied upon.
Was the proposal agreed to?
Can his support be depended on?
Has a plan been agreed upon?

No. 19 might be recomposed:

She complained of its being too hot.

Instead of *its being* (possessive and gerund), it is possible to have *it being* or *the room being*, (pro)noun and present participle.

She complained of the room being too hot.

It is often possible and advisable to avoid such mixed constructions by using another construction. E.g.:

She complained that the room was too hot. (See Table No. 62 below.)

When the subject is a *that*-clause, preparatory *it* is used, especially with the verb *occur*. Compare:

An idea occurred to me.
It occurred to me that you would like to know what happened.
Has it ever occurred to you that . . .?

Table No. 61 (VP 24A)

§ 35 b. In this table the object of the preposition is a (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive, sometimes called the 'accusative and infinitive' construction. Cf. *VP 3*.

	Subject × Verb	*Prep.*	*(Pro)noun* × to-*infinitive*
1	I rely	upon	you to be discreet.
2	Can I count	on	all of you to help?
3	Everyone was longing	for	the term to end and the holidays to begin.
4	I will arrange	for	a taxi to meet you at the station.
5	We're waiting	for	John to arrive.
6	She always so much wished	for	everyone to be happy.
7	He pushed the glasses along the counter and nodded	for	them to be refilled.
8	We have fixed	for	the meeting to be held on Friday.
9	I shall vote	for	you to captain the First Eleven.

NOTES

Many of these sentences can be recomposed in the pattern shown in Table No. 60.

No. 1. *I rely upon your discretion (your being discreet).*

No. 2. *Can I count on your help (the help of all of you)?*

No. 3. *Everyone was longing for the end of the term and the beginning of the holidays.*

No. 5. *We're waiting for John's arrival.*

The verb and preposition in this pattern may in some cases be looked on as a phrasal verb that is equivalent to a transitive verb in *VP 3*.

No. 3. *Everyone wanted the term to end and the holidays to begin.*

No. 6. *She wanted everyone to be happy.*

Example No. 8 illustrates a colloquial use of *fix* meaning *arrange*.

Table No. 62 (VP 24B)

§ 35 c. In Tables Nos. 60 and 61 the preposition governs a (pro)noun, a gerund, or the accusative and infinitive construction. With the exception of such conjunctional phrases as *in that*, *save that*, *notwithstanding that* (meaning 'in respect of the fact that', 'except for the fact that', etc., and rarely used except in precise legal style), prepositions do not govern *that*-clauses.

Some intransitive verbs of the class used in *VP 24* may be used with *that*-clauses. The preposition is omitted (so that, so far as word order is concerned, the pattern resembles *VP 11* for transitive verbs). If the preposition is retained, preparatory *it* also occurs. Compare these pairs:

{*He complained of unfair treatment.*
{*He complained that he had been treated unfairly.*
{*I will answer* (v.i., meaning 'vouch') *for this man's honesty.*
{*I will answer for it that this man is honest.*

This table illustrates this variation of *VP 24*.

	Subject × Verb	(*Prep.*)	(it)	that-*clause*
1	I agree			that it was a mistake.
2	He complained			that he had been underpaid.
3	He insists			that he was nowhere near the scene of the crime.
4	He rejoiced			that he had won the first prize.
5	I will see	(to	it)	that everything is ready in time.
6	Can you swear	(to	it)	that the accused man was at your house all Friday evening?
7	You may depend	upon	it	that every member of the Committee will support your proposal.
8	He insisted	(upon	it)	that he was innocent.
9	He boasted			that no one had ever beaten him at chess.

NOTES

Compare the examples below, in which the verbs are used with prepositions governing a (pro)noun or gerund.

No. 1. *I agree* (*with you*) *about that* (*upon*, *as to*, *that condition*).

No. 2. *He complained of having been underpaid.*
No. 3. *He insists upon the fact that . . .* (See § 79, *NP 3*.)
He insists on coming.
He insists on your apologizing.
He insists on Betty and Lizzie apologizing.
No. 5. *I will see to everything.*
No. 6. *Can you swear to having paid the money?*
Can you swear to his having paid you the money?
No. 7. *You may depend upon their support.*
No. 8. *He insisted upon his innocence.*
No. 9. *He boasted of having never been defeated at chess.*

Rejoice (in No. 4) is not used as a verb in colloquial style. *Grieve* is not used with a *that*-clause in colloquial style, though 'I grieve that . . .' may be used in formal or literary style.

Table No. 63 (VP 24B)

§ 35 d. This table illustrates the use of verbs in this pattern when the object of the preposition is an infinitive phrase, or a clause other than a *that*-clause. The preposition is in some cases omitted (e.g. after *care*). In other cases the preposition is usually retained, though in colloquial style it may be omitted.

	Subject × Verb	*(Prep.)*	*Clause, Phrase, etc.*
1	Have you decided	(upon)	where you will spend the holidays?
2	Have you decided	(upon)	where to put the piano?
3	Everything depends	on	whether you pass the examination.
4	I don't care		whether he approves or disapproves.
5	I don't care		where you go.
6	Don't worry	about	how the money was spent.
7	They couldn't agree	about	who should do the work.

NOTE

Compare § 26 (Table No. 30) for transitive verbs in a pattern with the same word order.

VERB PATTERN 25

§ **36.** Verbs in this pattern are used with a *to*-infinitive. For transitive verbs used with a *to*-infinitive, see *VP 2*. The pattern is subdivided.

Table No. 64 (VP 25A)

§ **36 a.** In this table the infinitive is one of purpose, aim, or intention.

	Subject × Verb	to-*infinitive, etc.*
1	We stopped	to have a rest.
2	I am waiting	to hear your explanation.
3	Somebody has called	to see you.
4	We went	to see the Exhibition.
5	He got up	to answer the bell.
6	I stood up	to see better.
7	I come	to bury Caesar, not to praise him.
8	They ran	to help her.
9	Would you care	to go for a walk?
10	She longed	to know how the children were getting on.
11	They agreed	to join us.
12	Don't hesitate	to refuse if you think the plan is unwise.

NOTES

No. 1. *We stopped (in order) to have a rest.* Cf. *stop* in *VP 17A.* See Table No. 32.

No. 9. Cf. *Would you care for a walk? (VP 24)*

No. 10. Cf. *She longed for news of the children. (VP 24)*

No. 11. Cf. *They agreed to our suggestion. (VP 24)*

No. 12. Cf. *hesitate about. (VP 24).*

Table No. 65 (VP 25B)

§ 36 b. In this table the infinitive indicates result or outcome.

	Subject × Verb	to-*infinitive*
1	He came	to see that he was mistaken.
2	How do you come	to know that?
3	Now that I come	to think of it, . . .
4	How can I get	to know her?
5	He lived	to be ninety.
6	You will live	to regret it.
7	Will he live	to finish his great work?
8	The news proved (turned out)	to be true.
9	He is growing	to be more obedient.

NOTES

For the use of *grow* in this pattern, see § 65.
Stand is used in this pattern to indicate a probable or possible outcome. *We stand to lose* (i.e. run the risk of losing) *a large sum of money*.

Table No. 66 (VP 25C)

§ 36 c. In this table the infinitive is used in a way that makes it equivalent to a co-ordinate clause.

	Subject × Verb	to-*infinitive*
1	He awoke	to find the house on fire.
2	The drunken man awoke	to find himself in prison.
3	The good old days have gone	never to return.
4	The jet air-liner has come	to stay.
5	I rejoice	to hear of your success.
6	I grieve	to hear of your failure.
7	She shuddered (trembled)	to think of it.

NOTES

No. 1. *He awoke and found the house on fire.*
No. 2. *The drunken man awoke and found himself in prison.*
No. 3. *The good old days have gone and will never return.*
No. 4. *The jet air-liner has come and will continue to be used.*
No. 5. *I rejoice because I hear of your success.* (Not used in colloquial style. Cf. *Rejoice at the news of your success.*)
No. 7. *She shuddered when she thought of it.* (Cf. *Shudder at the thought of . . .*)

Table No. 67 (VP 25D)

§ 36 **d.** In this table the infinitive is in most cases more important than the finite verb.

	Subject × Verb	to-*infinitive*
1	I fail	to see what you mean.
2	We happened	to be there.
3	I chanced	to meet him in the park.
4	He appeared	to enjoy the concert.
5	They seemed	not to notice it.
6	The swimmer failed	to reach the shore.

NOTES

No. 1. *I do not see what you mean.*
No. 2. *We were there by chance (by accident).*
No. 3. *I met him by chance in the park.*
No. 4. *He apparently enjoyed the concert.*
No. 5. *Apparently (Seemingly) they did not notice it.*
No. 6. *The swimmer did not reach the shore.*

Table No. 68 (VP 25E)

§ 36 **e.** This table gives examples of a *to*-infinitive used with the finites of *be* (i.e. *am, is, are, was, were*).

This construction is used for a variety of meanings. It may indicate an arrangement (either as the result of an order or by

mutual agreement). In the interrogative it may ask about somebody's wishes. It can be used as an equivalent for a construction with *must*, *ought*, *can*, *could*, *will*.

	Subject × Verb	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1	John and I are	to meet at the station at six o'clock.
2	We are	to be married in May.
3	We were	to be married in May.
4	We were	to have been married in May.
5	At what time am I	to come?
6	Where am I	to put this box?
7	Am I	to stand here for ever?
8	You are	always to knock before you come into my room.
9	I am	to inform you that . . .
10	Nobody is	to know.
11	How am I	to pay my debts?
12	The purse was not	to be found.
13	As I was	about to say, . . .
14	This I was only	to learn later.
15	He was	never to see his wife or children again.
16	The new building is	to be six stories high.

NOTES

The sentences in this table may be paraphrased roughly as follows:

No. 1. *John and I have arranged (agreed) to meet . . .* (or) *have been asked (told) to meet . . .*

No. 2. *We have agreed (arranged) to marry . . .*

No. 3. *We agreed (arranged) to marry . . .*

No. 4. *We had agreed (arranged) to marry in May (but didn't marry).*

No. 5. *At what time do you wish me to come?*

No. 6. *Where shall I (where would you like me to) put . . .?*

No. 7. *Must I stand . . .? Do you expect me to stand . . .?*

No. 8. *You must always knock . . .*

No. 9. *I am instructed to inform you . . .*

No. 10. *Nobody must know.*
No. 11. *How can I pay my debts?*
No. 12. *The purse could not be found.*
No. 13. *As I was on the point of saying, . . .*
No. 14. *I did not learn this until later.*
No. 15. *It was his destiny never to see . . .*
No. 16. *The new building is designed to be . . .*

Table No. 69 (VP 25F)

§ 36 f. The present and past progressive tenses of *go* are used in *VP 25* to indicate (i) likelihood (as in examples 1 to 5), (ii) intention (as in examples 6 to 11), and (iii) future time when there is no reference to external conditions or circumstances (as in examples 12 and 13).

	Subject × be going	to-*infinitive, etc.*
1	Is it going	to be fine tomorrow?
2	The shortage is going	to continue.
3	He felt he was going	to be sick.
4	It's going	to rain soon.
5	The work is going	to be more difficult than I expected.
6	Where are you going	to spend your holidays?
7	I'm going	to finish this work before six o'clock.
8	When is she going	to help you?
9	We're going	to plant some apple trees here.
10	Are you going	to learn Russian?
11	She said she was going	to have her own way.
12	I'm going	to tell you a story.
13	She's going	to have a baby.

For further information see § 116 and § 112.

PART 2

Time and Tense

§ 37. The words TIME and TENSE must not be confused. The word TIME stands for a concept with which all mankind is familiar. It is something independent of language. The word TENSE stands for a verb form or series of verb forms used to express a time relation. Tenses vary in different languages. Tenses may indicate whether an action, activity, or state is past, present, or future. Tenses may also indicate whether an action, activity, or state is, was, or will be complete, or whether it is, was, or will be in progress over a period of time.

English verbs have only two simple tenses, the tenses called the Simple Present (e.g. *he writes*) and the Simple Past (e.g. *he wrote*).

The Simple Present Tense can be used of past, present, and future time. Consider this question and answer:

A: *How does Mr. Brown earn his living?*
B: *He sells books.*

The verb *sells* is Simple Present Tense. But this verb describes Mr. Brown's activities in the past, in the present, and in the future. He sold books last year, he is selling books now, and he will sell books in the future. Consider this sentence:

The liner sails for New York at 3.00 p.m. tomorrow.

The verb *sails* is Simple Present Tense. It is used of an event in future time. Consider these sentences:

I wrote a letter to my brother last week. (Past Tense; past time.)
If I wrote to my brother now, he would receive the letter tomorrow morning. (Past Tense; present time.)
If I wrote to my brother tomorrow, he would receive the letter on Tuesday morning. (Past Tense; future time.)

I wish I knew where Mr. Green was living now. (*Knew*, Past Tense; present time. The sentence means: 'I am sorry that I do not know, now, where Mr. Green is living.')
It's time the children were in bed. (*Were*, Past Tense; present time. The sentence means: The children ought to be in bed *now*.)

In the sections that follow, therefore, it is important not to confuse present time and Present Tense, past time and Past Tense, future time and Future Tense. Names of tenses are printed with initial capital letters to help readers to avoid this confusion.

COMPOUND TENSES

§ 38. As well as the two simple tenses (Present and Past), English has many compound tenses. These compound tenses are made by combining two or more verb forms. These combinations may be concerned with time. Combinations with parts of the verbs *be* and *have* are usually concerned with time. For example:

I *am writing* a letter now.
I *have written* three letters today.
He said that he *had been writing* since two o'clock.

When parts of the verbs *be* and *have* are used in this way, they are auxiliary (or helping) verbs. See § 1 b. The auxiliary verb *do* is used to form the expanded tenses, used in the formation of the negative and interrogative, and for the emphatic affirmative. See § 2.

OTHER VERB COMBINATIONS

§ 39 a. Other verb combinations are not concerned primarily with time. When such verbs as *may-might*, *must*, *ought*, *need*, *should* (see § 1 c) are used in combination with other verbs, they are usually concerned with the way in which we look upon an activity or state, for example, whether it is something certain, probable, or possible, whether it is real or unreal, or whether it is something likely or unlikely to be realized.

Many languages have verb forms with special endings to show these different ways of looking upon an activity or state. These changes of form in the conjugation of a verb are called MOODS. When such verbs as *should*, *would*, *must*, and *can* are used in combination with other verbs, they are called MODAL AUXILIARIES or MODAL VERBS. (Modal is the adjective form of *mode*, which is another word for *mood*.)

§ 39 b. English verbs have three moods. They are called the INDICATIVE, the IMPERATIVE, and the SUBJUNCTIVE.

The Indicative Mood is used for ordinary statements and questions.

The Imperative Mood is used for making requests and for giving orders. E.g. *Shut the door, please! Hurry up! Don't do that!*

The Subjunctive is not much used in modern written English and very rarely in modern colloquial English. It was formerly used to show such feelings as doubt and to indicate conditions. It is still used to express wishes in sentences such as: *God save the Queen! God bless you! Heaven forbid that . . .! Grammar be hanged!*

In modern English it is more common to use a modal auxiliary (with an infinitive) or subjunctive equivalent (i.e. a verb combination that is equal to a subjunctive).

The uses of the various modal auxiliaries are dealt with and illustrated in Part 5. Here is an example of the verb *may*. One of the uses of *may* is to show that something is possible or probable. E.g.:

> *You may remember the evening we first talked about going to London.*

Instead of using the modal auxiliary *may*, it is possible to use the adverb *perhaps*.

> *Perhaps you remember the evening we first talked about going to London.*

In the second sentence the verb *remember* is Indicative Mood. The idea of possibility or probability is shown not by means of the modal auxiliary *may* but by the use of the adverb *perhaps*.

It is because there are often numerous ways in which such ideas as possibility, condition, obligation, and so on can be expressed that they are dealt with separately in Part 5.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB 'WRITE'

§ **40.** The names used for the simple and compound tenses are shown below. The conjugation of the verb *write* is given to illustrate the verb forms.

No. 1
Simple Present Tense

I write
You write
He writes
We write
They write

No. 2
Present Progressive Tense*

I am writing
You are writing
He is writing
We are writing
They are writing

No. 3
Simple Past Tense

I wrote
You wrote
He wrote
We wrote
They wrote

No. 4
Past Progressive Tense*

I was writing
You were writing
He was writing
We were writing
They were writing

No. 5
Future Tense Non-Progressive

I shall write
You will write
He will write
We shall write
They will write

No. 6
Future Progressive Tense*

I shall be writing
You will be writing
He will be writing
We shall be writing
They will be writing

No. 7
Present Perfect Non-Progressive

I have written
You have written
He has written
We have written
They have written

No. 8
*Present Perfect Progressive**

I have been writing
You have been writing
He has been writing
We have been writing
They have been writing

* Also called the *Continuous Tenses.*

No. 9	*No. 10*
Past Perfect† Non-Progressive	*Past Perfect Progressive**
I had written	I had been writing
You had written	You had been writing
He had written	He had been writing
We had written	We had been writing
They had written	They had been writing

No. 11	*No. 12*
Future Perfect Non-Progressive	*Future Perfect Progressive**
I shall have written	I shall have been writing
You will have written	You will have been writing
He will have written	He will have been writing
We shall have written	We shall have been writing
They will have written	They will have been writing

Ways of Indicating Time Relations

§41. Most grammar books deal with the tenses one by one and describe the various purposes for which each tense is used. In the following sections a different method is used. Time relations of various sorts are used as cross headings, with section numbers. The various ways in which these time relations can be expressed are then set out. The names of the tenses, as shown above, are used for this purpose. Remember the warning against confusing time and tense.

THE IMMEDIATE (OR REAL) PRESENT

§42 a. There are several ways of indicating that an activity or state is incomplete, still continuing, at the moment of speaking or writing. The Present Progressive Tense is the tense most often used for this purpose. It is the tense most closely associated with present time. There may be an Adverbial of Present Time (e.g. *now*, *today*), but this is not essential. The time may be implied.

What is she doing now? She's mixing a cake.
The boys are playing tennis in the park.
What is the orchestra playing?

† Sometimes called the *Pluperfect Tense*.
* Also called the *Continuous Tense*.

The Present Progressive Tense is used for the immediate present and also for a more general present.

Mr. Green is writing a letter now (i.e. at this moment).
Mr. Green is writing another novel. (This indicates that he has started it but has not yet finished it. It does not suggest that Mr. Green is, at this moment, sitting at his typewriter.)

Cf. *Mr. Green writes novels.* (See § 43 a.)

Harry is playing football now.
Harry is playing in the first eleven this season. (See § 52.)
Cf. *Harry plays football well.* (See § 43 a.)

§ **42 b.** The Simple Present Tense is sometimes used to describe an activity that is actually in progress at the moment of speaking. Its use for this purpose is much less common than the use of the Present Progressive.

The Simple Present Tense is used for this purpose chiefly in demonstrations, descriptions, or explanations, step by step, of the various stages in a process of some kind, for example, the way to cook something, or the way in which a scientific experiment is made. This use of the Simple Present Tense, therefore, is not really different from the use of this tense for what is usual or habitual. The Simple Present Tense should *never* be used in classroom teaching for the demonstration of activities. *I'm going to the door, I'm opening it, I'm shutting it,* etc. Not: ⚠ *I go to the door, I open it, I shut it,* etc. See § 43 a, § 49 b.

I sift the flour, salt, and baking powder into a bowl. I mix them well. Then I break the eggs into a cup. If they are good, I add them to the mixture in the bowl. Then I beat the mixture thoroughly. (etc.)

If we add the words *Whenever I make this kind of batter,* we have the use of the Simple Present Tense for what is habitual or usual.

§ **42 c.** The Simple Present Tense is also used in exclamatory sentences beginning with *here* and *there.* See § 34 c, Table No. 59.

Here he comes! Here comes the bus! There she goes! There goes the bell!

If these statements were not exclamatory, the Progressive Tense would be used. Cf. *He's coming. The bus is coming. The bell is ringing.*

§ 42 d. The verb *continue* (and such equivalents as *go on*) are used in the Simple Present Tense. As they contain in themselves the notion of continuity, it is less necessary to use the Progressive (or Continuous) Tenses.

> *The weather continues cold and wet.* (Cf. *It is still raining.*)
> *The war goes on, with all its hardships and horrors.*

(Note that when *go on* means 'happen', the Progressive Tense may be used. E.g. *What's going on here?*)

§ 42 e. Verbs of perception are used in the Simple Present Tense to denote an activity or state that continues.

> *Do you hear a strange noise?* (Not ♠ *Are you hearing a strange noise?*)

For further notes and examples, see §§ 53–57.

§ 42 f. There are numerous other verbs for which the use of the Simple Present Tense is preferred to indicate a state, condition, feeling, etc., that continues at the moment of speaking or writing. These are listed and illustrated in examples in the article on Non-Conclusive Verbs (§§ 58–60). They are verbs that denote what is looked upon as continuing indefinitely, or unlikely to change, as in: *He likes fish. He knows French.*

The most important point to remember about the Present Progressive Tense is that its use indicates an activity or state that is still incomplete but whose termination may be expected, as in: *It is raining.* This is a point that should be borne in mind for all the Progressive Tenses. They indicate a continued activity or state, but not a permanent activity or state. There is always a limitation, an expectation that there was or will be an end to the activity or state. This is why these tenses are, in grammatical terminology, sometimes called the Imperfect Tenses.

§ 43 a. In general statements of what was true in past time, is true now, and is likely to be true in future time, the Simple Present Tense is used.

The sun shines during the day.
Birds fly.
The River Nile rises in Central Africa.
The earth moves round the sun.
Horses are animals.
Twice two is four.

These are examples of what are sometimes called 'eternal truths'. Other general statements, not covering all time but a vague period of time extending from past to present and presumably into the future, are also made with the Simple Present.

Your sister speaks French well.
Mr. Green writes novels.
John prefers films to stage plays.
My cat likes fish.

See the article on Non-Conclusive Verbs (§§ 58–60) for other examples of the Simple Present Tense for all-inclusive time.

§ 43 b. The Simple Present Tense is also used for references to what may at any time be found in print by readers.

It says in the Bible, 'Thou shalt not steal'.
The author of this book says that . . . (The book may have been written many years ago.)
I see in this week's 'Spectator' that . . .
The newspaper says that it's going to be cold today.

The use of the Simple Present in such cases indicates that what is referred to could be found in the past, and can be found now. It will be possible to find it in future. Writing and print continue in existence. Thus, when we quote from letters, we use the Simple Present.

John says in this letter that he's enjoying his holidays.

Compare a quotation from something heard on a radio programme.

The BBC weather report this morning said that we should have rain.

A broadcast, unlike something printed, does not continue to exist.

§ 43 c. The Present Perfect Tense of *get* is used in colloquial style to indicate inclusive time. *I've got* means the same as *I have*. See §§ 4 b, 4 c.

Has your father got a motor-car?
How many books have you got?
What long hair you've got!

PAST TIME

§ 44 a. To indicate activities or states in the past, without indicating any connexion with the present, the Simple Past Tense may be used. There is often an Adverbial of Past Time in the sentence. Note, especially, the use of adverbials with *ago*. (See § 99 b, Table No. 80.) For the positions of these adverbials, see § 99 d. The adverbial may indicate either a point of time (as in examples 1 to 4) or a period of time (as in examples 5 to 7). Or the time may be implied, or indicated by the context or situation (as in examples 8 to 10).

1. *He was born in 1906.*
2. *The First World War began in 1914.*
3. *Harry came to see me yesterday.*
4. *I heard the news an hour ago.*
5. *The Greens lived in Ireland during the war.*
6. *She studied music while she was in Paris.*
7. *Most of our cathedrals were built during the Middle Ages.*
8. *I bought this fountain pen in London.*
9. *Did you sleep well?* (This question, asked at breakfast, obviously means: Did you sleep well *last night*?)
10. *Napoleon marched his army to Moscow.*

If the situation or context is clear, each one of a succession of activities may be indicated by the use of the Simple Past Tense.

11. *He woke at seven, got out of bed, washed, shaved, dressed. went downstairs, had breakfast, put his overcoat on, hurried to the bus stop, and caught a bus to the station.*

If the order in which two or more activities occur is not clear from the situation, the Past Perfect Tense may be needed. See 'The Inclusive Past', § 46.

§ 44 **b.** To indicate that an activity or state was continuing at the time when another activity occurred, the Past Progressive Tense may be used.

1. *When George arrived home, his sister was listening to the wireless.*
2. *Where were you living when the war broke out?*
3. *I saw Mr. Grey while I was walking to school.*
4. *The boy was knocked down by a bus while he was crossing the street.*
5. *We were playing tennis in the garden when you telephoned.*
6. *Was it still raining when you came in?*
7. *My hat blew off while I was crossing the bridge.*
8. *Mary fell and broke her leg while she was skating.*
9. *The sun was just setting as we reached home.*
10. *I dropped my watch while I was winding it last night.*

§ 44 **c.** If the chief interest in a past activity is not in the point or period of past time but in the activity itself, and its continuity, the Past Progressive Tense may be used. There is less interest in the completion of the activity.

1. *What were you doing all morning?*
2. *She was listening to the wireless all evening.*
3. *The girls were making cakes this morning.*
4. *She was writing letters all afternoon.*

In these examples it is the continuous nature of the activity that is made prominent by the use of the Past Progressive Tense. If the

activity itself is the chief interest, and if the completion of the activity is also to be indicated, the Simple Past Tense is to be preferred. Thus, the examples above would be:

1. *What did you do this morning?*
2. *She listened to the wireless yesterday evening.*
3. *The girls made some cakes this morning.*
4. *She wrote some letters in the afternoon.*

The situation described below illustrates this difference.

Imagine that a friend says to you:

> '*Did you hear about that terrible motor-car accident on the Dover Road last week?*'

You might answer, using the Simple Past Tense:

> '*Yes, Black told me about it.*' or,
> '*Yes, I read about it in the newspaper.*'

You might answer, using the Past Progressive Tense:

> '*Oh, Brown was telling me about it yesterday.*' or,
> '*Yes, I was reading about it in the newspaper.*'

The second pair of answers, in the Progressive Tense, suggests that your knowledge of the accident is not yet complete. Your friend, therefore, may give you further information. The first pair of answers, in the Simple Past Tense, suggests that your knowledge is complete and that you have no wish to hear more about it.

§44 d. If we wish to indicate that two or more activities or states were continuing at the same time, and to put into prominence the continuous nature of the activities or states, the Past Progressive may be used for both or all the activities.

1. *While I was sowing seeds, Harry was digging up potatoes and George was picking plums.*
2. *Martha was cleaning the windows and Helen was polishing the forks and spoons.*

If the completion of the activities is the chief interest, and their

continuity, the Simple Past Tense is preferred. Thus, example No. 1 would be:

I sowed some seeds, Harry dug up some potatoes, and George picked plums.

§ 44 e. For habitual and repeated activities in the past, see § 51.

§ 44 f. Completed activities in the past are sometimes indicated by the use of the Simple Present Tense. This is sometimes called the 'Historic Present'. It is used to make past events appear more vivid. It is used in English much less than in some other languages (e.g. French).

The messenger arrives with news of the disaster. At once preparations are made to send relief to the victims of the flood. Boxes of food and bundles of clothing are loaded on to lorries, . . .

The Simple Present Tense is also used in colloquial style to make a recital of past events more dramatic.

So she goes up to the policeman. 'There's a burglar in my house!' she says. 'Are you sure of that?' asks the policeman. 'Yes,' she says. So the policeman goes to her house and starts looking for the burglar.

THE INCLUSIVE PRESENT

Past Activities within a Period extending to and including the Present

§ 45 a. If we wish to refer to completed activities that took place within a period of time that extends to and includes the present moment, without giving a definite point or period of time for any of these activities, we may use the Present Perfect Tense. The starting-point of the period need not be indicated. E.g.:

He has often been to Amsterdam.

Here the period is implied. It is the lifetime of the person of whom the statement is made. The period may, of course, be indicated,

e.g. by the use of such phrases as *since the end of the war*, or *during the last ten years*.

The Present Perfect Tense, therefore, is the tense most often used to refer to experiences for which no definite date(s) in the past need be given, or for which no definite date(s) are known, e.g. in questions. Adverbials of Frequency may be used.

1. *Have you (ever) read 'David Copperfield'?*
2. *Have you had any serious illnesses?*
3. *It has been known to snow here in May!*
4. *Have you ever been up in an aeroplane?*
5. *I have never known her to be angry.*
6. *Mr. Brown has never had to punish his children.*
7. *Mr. White has been to Burma.* (Cf. *Mr. White has gone to Burma.* This is an example of the use of the Present Perfect Tense dealt with in § 45 b, below. *Mr. White has been to Burma* indicates that Mr. White once visited Burma but not that he is in Burma now. *Mr. White has gone to Burma* means that he is now in Burma or on his way to Burma.)

Present Result of Past Activity or Experience

§ 45 b. The Present Perfect Tense is also used to refer to the present result of an activity or experience in the past. The chief interest is not in the past but in the present. In the examples below this aspect of the Present Perfect Tense is shown by the additions in parentheses. These suggest possible present results.

1. *I've come to school without my glasses* (so now I can't see to read).

2. *She has spent many years in France* (so now she probably knows a lot about France and the French).

3. *Mr. Green has bought a motor-car* (so now he needn't use buses and trams).

4. *Mr. Grey has been out of work for several months* (so now he and his family are short of money).

5. *I've finished my work* (so now I can sit back and rest).

6. *You haven't finished your work* (so you must *still* go on working).

7. *The man has called for the rent* (so *now* you will have to pay him).

8. *I've bought a copy of the 'Concise Oxford Dictionary'* (so *now* I possess this dictionary).

9. *Who has eaten all the cherries?* (Who is to be blamed for the fact that there are *now* no cherries?)

10. *Mr. White has gone to Burma* (so *now* he is not here). (Cf. § 45 a, example No. 7 and the notes on it.)

§ **45 c.** To indicate an activity or state that extends over a period of time that began in the past and includes the present, and to indicate that the activity or state may extend into the future, the Present Perfect Progressive Tense is used.

1. *She has been waiting to see you since two o'clock* (and is still waiting).
2. *I've been wanting to see you about several important matters.*
3. *They've been studying English for three years.*
4. *It has been raining since early morning.*
5. *The baby has been crying all morning.*
6. *He has been working late every evening this week* (and will perhaps do so for the rest of the week).
7. *I've been reading 'David Copperfield' this week.* (This implies that I am still reading it. Cf. *I have read 'David Copperfield' this week.* This implies that I started and finished the book during the week. Cf. *I have read 'David Copperfield'*, with no adverbial of time. This sentence, which comes under § 45 a, indicates something that is part of my past experience.)
8. *She has been taking violin lessons this year.* (This implies that she continues to take violin lessons.)
9. *They have been living in England since 1948.* (This indicates that they still live in England. Cf. *At various times they have lived in Persia, Japan, Egypt, and Nigeria.* This is an example of past experience, § 45 a.)
10. *I have been writing letters all afternoon.* (This may suggest

that I am still writing letters or may stress the continuity, as noted in § 45 d. Cf. *I have written half a dozen letters this afternoon.* This indicates that the letters are now finished, as in § 45 b.)

NOTE

The Present Perfect Progressive Tense is likely to be used more especially with those verbs that denote a passive, not an active, state, e.g. *wait, sit, rest, sleep, lie* (*down*). It is possible to say: *I've waited here for an hour*, but *I've been waiting* is much more probable. It is (theoretically and grammatically) possible to say: *These books have lain on the floor of your study all week* but *have been lying* is much more probable.

§ 45 d. The Present Perfect Progressive Tense usually indicates that the activity or state referred to still continues and may continue in future. This tense is sometimes used, however, of an activity that is now ended. In such cases there is emphasis on the continuity of the activity or state. The continued and uninterrupted nature of the activity is often emphasized in this way as an explanation of or excuse for something. The examples below illustrate this.

1. *I don't feel like going out this evening. I've been working in the garden all day.*

2. *The children have been playing tennis. That's why they're so hot.*

3. *Please excuse my dirty clothes. I've been cleaning out the cellar.* Cf. *I've cleaned out the cellar. Now it's fit to store things in.* When the result of an activity is thought of, the Simple Present Perfect Tense is preferred, § 45 b.)

4. *Be careful! John has been painting the door.* (John is no longer painting the door. Here, attention is called to the recent activity, a kind of warning that the paint is still wet. Cf. *John has painted the door.* This might be said after the paint had dried.)

5. *We have been building a garage on to the house.* (Here the use of the Progressive Tense might be to give prominence to the activity involved, the mess and disturbance. If the speaker wished to call attention only to the existence of the new garage, the Simple Present Perfect would be preferred. *We have built a garage on to the house.*)

There is no clear line of division between the use of the Simple Present Perfect and the Present Perfect Progressive, but the examples and the notes to them may give some guidance.

§ 45 e. In older English *be* was often used with verbs that indicate motion where *have* is used in modern English. Thus, *is come* was used where today we use *has come*. The finites of *be* are still used in some cases. Their use makes it possible to mark a distinction. E.g.

> *The snow has melted.* (This draws attention to the process or happening.)
> *The snow is melted.* (This calls attention to the result, the fact that the streets, etc., are now clear of snow.)

Completed Activities in the Immediate Past

§ 45 f. To indicate completed activities in the immediate past the Present Perfect Tense with the adverb *just* may be used. Or the Simple Past Tense may be used with an adverbial such as *a moment ago* or *a few moments ago*. Note that *just* is placed between *have* (or *has*) and the past participle, and that *a moment ago* has end position. (See § 101 c and § 99 d.)

1. *George has just gone out.* (*George went out a moment ago.*)
2. *We've just finished breakfast.* (*We finished breakfast a few moments ago.*)
3. *It has just struck twelve.* (*The clock struck twelve a short time ago.*)
4. *Mr. White has just rung up.* (*Mr. White telephoned a few moments ago.*)
5. *The cat has just had kittens.* (*The cat had kittens not long ago.*)

Do not confuse this use of *just* with the use of the adverb *just* meaning 'barely' or 'merely'. With these meanings *just* may be used with verbs in various tenses. E.g.

> *I just* (merely) *wanted to ask you about . . .*
> *You will just* (barely, with no time to spare) *catch the bus if you hurry.*

See *just* in § 108.

§ 45 g. An examination of the adverbials used with the Present Perfect Tense will show that, with the exception of *just* (as in the examples in § 45 f), they indicate periods of time that began in the past and extend to the present. The most important are:

1. *Since*-phrases and *since*-clauses. See § 102, Table No. 87.

    We haven't seen George since 1950.
    I've had no news of him since he sailed for Singapore.

Do not use the Simple Present Tense with *since*. *I have been* (not ⚠ *I am*) *here since two o'clock.*

2. Phrases with *for*, denoting a period of time that continues up to the present. See § 102, Table No. 87.

    We haven't seen Helen for several months.
    There has been no rain here for over three weeks.
    Have you been waiting long (for a long time)?

3. The adverbs *already* and *yet*.

    Have the children gone to school yet?
    Has Tom left yet?
    I've seen that film already.

4. The adverbs *ever* and *never* when they mean 'at any (no) time up to the present'.

    Have you ever been to Iceland?
    I have never been down a coal-mine.

(When *ever* means 'at any time during a period of time completely past' or 'at any time in the future', it may, of course, be used with other tenses.)

5. Adverbials of Frequency such as *often*, *several times*, etc. See § 100.

    I've often been there.
    I've read this book several times.

6. Adverbials of Present Time such as *today*, *this week* (*month*, *year*, etc.).

Have you done much work today?
I haven't seen Harry this week.
It has been raining all day. (I.e. all this day.)
Tom hasn't come to school this morning.

(Note that *all day*, *all night*, etc., may also be adverbs of past time. *This morning* may also refer to past time if one is speaking in the afternoon or evening. E.g. *Did you get to school in time this morning?*)

7. The adverbs *just*, *lately*, *recently*, and adverbials such as *during the last week* (*the last few days*).

The cat has just had kittens.
She hasn't been well lately.
He has been away from school (during) the last few weeks.

(*Recently* and *lately* are also used with the Past Tense. E.g. *He was here quite recently.*)

8. Various phrases such as *so far*, *up to now*, *up to the present.*

So far we have had no trouble.
Up to the present, everything has been straightforward.

THE INCLUSIVE PAST

§ 46 a. To indicate activities that took place within a period of time that extended to and included a point or period of time completely in the past (the 'before-past'), the Past Perfect Tense may be used. The point or period of past time is either named or implied. To indicate that the activity was continuous, or that it was still going on at the named point or period of past time, the Past Perfect Progressive Tense may be used. Compare the use of the Present Perfect Tenses (Progressive and Non-Progressive) for the inclusive present (the 'before-now').

1. *As soon as the teacher entered the classroom, he saw that one of the boys had drawn a sketch of him on the blackboard.*

2. *When Brown came to the school in 1950, Green had already been teaching there for five years.*

3. *By three o'clock he had answered only half the letters he had received that morning.*

4. *In 1950 he had been married (for) ten years.*

5. *When we arrived on the field, the match had already started.*

6. *On reaching the station, he found that his friends had just arrived.*

7. *When Ali came to England in 1952, he had already learnt to speak English well.*

8. *The bus driver was just about to start when he remembered that he had not filled the petrol tank.*

9. *We had got everything ready for them long before they arrived.*

10. *They had been to several parties during the Christmas holidays.*

§ 46 b. The Past Perfect naturally replaces the Past Tense and the Present Perfect Tense in reported speech after a reporting verb in the Past Tense. Compare the use of *ago* with the Past Tense and *before* (or *earlier, previously*) with the Past Perfect Tense.

1. *'I have already read that book.' She told me that she had already read that book.*

2. *'They left the district a few months ago.' I was told that they had left the district a few months before (earlier, previously).*

3. *'Where have you been? What have you been doing?' He asked me where I had been and what I had been doing.*

4. *'George died two days ago.' They told me that George had died two days before.*

5. *'I visited Naples two years ago,' Mary told me that she had visited Naples two years before.*

§ 46 c. If the sequence of events is clear without the use of two different tenses, the Past Tense may be used to indicate two (or several) events. This is usually the case when the conjunction is *before*.

He opened the window before he got into bed.
The bus started just before I reached the last step.

With other conjunctions the Past Perfect Tense is usually needed to indicate the earlier of two events.

When he had had his supper, he went to bed.

Compare the two examples below. In the first example the two events occur together. In the second example the events follow one another.

When the Queen entered the hall, the orchestra played the National Anthem.

When the Anthem had been played, the concert began.

§ **46 d.** The conjunctions used to join two sentences in which we indicate two past events, one of which preceded the other, are *when, before, after, until, once, now that,* and *as soon as.* There are often alternative constructions. These are illustrated below.

1 (*a*) *When I reached the station, the train had already left.* (*b*) *I reached the station after the train had left.* (*c*) *I didn't reach the station until after the train had left.* (*d*) *The train (had) left before I reached the station.*

2 (*a*) *When we got to the hall, the concert had already started.* (*b*) *We got to the hall after the concert had started.* (*c*) *We didn't get to the hall until after the concert had started.* (*d*) *The concert (had) started before we got to the hall.*

3 (*a*) *For several years after Green (had) left college, he was employed by an insurance company.* (*b*) *When Green left college, he was employed for several years by an insurance company.*

4 (*a*) *As soon as they had finished breakfast, they ran out to play.* (*b*) *They ran out to play after they had finished breakfast.*

NOTES

1d and *2d.* As these examples show, the Past Tense is possible instead of the Past Perfect Tense in clauses with *before.* The conjunction *before* itself indicates the difference in time.

3a and *3b.* Here, too, the sequence of events is clear without the use of different tenses.

§ **46 e.** Compare the use of *when* and *before* and of *when* and *after*

in these pairs of sentences. Note the changes from affirmative to negative in the examples marked *a* and *b*.

1a. When the bell rang, we had finished our work. The bell rang after we had finished our work.

1b. When the bell rang, we had not finished our work. The bell rang before we had finished our work.

2a. When I met George, he had already heard the news. I met George after he had heard the news.

2b. When I met George, he had not yet heard the news. I met George before he had heard the news.

3a. When Tom called to see me, I had already had breakfast. Tom called to see me after I had had breakfast.

3b. When Tom called to see me, I had not had breakfast. Tom called to see me before I had had breakfast.

4a. When the thief was caught, he had already disposed of the stolen goods. The thief was caught after he had disposed of the stolen goods.

4b. When the thief was caught, he had not yet disposed of the stolen goods. The thief was caught before he had disposed of the stolen goods.

5a. When we reached the football ground, the game had already started. We reached the football ground after the game had started.

5b. When we reached the football ground, the game had not yet started. We reached the football ground before the game had started.

§ 46 f. The Past Perfect Tense is used with such verbs as *hope, expect, think, intend, mean* (= intend), *suppose*, and *want* to indicate that a past hope, expectation, intention, desire, etc., was not realized.

1. We had hoped that you would be able to visit us.

2. I had meant (intended) to call on you, but was prevented from doing so.

3. She had thought of paying us a visit but the bad weather made her change her plans.

4. I hadn't expected that. That was something I hadn't expected.

5. They had wanted to help but couldn't get here in time.

With other conjunctions the Past Perfect Tense is usually needed to indicate the earlier of two events.

When he had had his supper, he went to bed.

Compare the two examples below. In the first example the two events occur together. In the second example the events follow one another.

When the Queen entered the hall, the orchestra played the National Anthem.

When the Anthem had been played, the concert began.

§ **46 d.** The conjunctions used to join two sentences in which we indicate two past events, one of which preceded the other, are *when, before, after, until, once, now that,* and *as soon as.* There are often alternative constructions. These are illustrated below.

1 (*a*) *When I reached the station, the train had already left.* (*b*) *I reached the station after the train had left.* (*c*) *I didn't reach the station until after the train had left.* (*d*) *The train* (*had*) *left before I reached the station.*

2 (*a*) *When we got to the hall, the concert had already started.* (*b*) *We got to the hall after the concert had started.* (*c*) *We didn't get to the hall until after the concert had started.* (*d*) *The concert* (*had*) *started before we got to the hall.*

3 (*a*) *For several years after Green* (*had*) *left college, he was employed by an insurance company.* (*b*) *When Green left college, he was employed for several years by an insurance company.*

4 (*a*) *As soon as they had finished breakfast, they ran out to play.* (*b*) *They ran out to play after they had finished breakfast.*

NOTES

1*d* and 2*d*. As these examples show, the Past Tense is possible instead of the Past Perfect Tense in clauses with *before*. The conjunction *before* itself indicates the difference in time.

3*a* and 3*b*. Here, too, the sequence of events is clear without the use of different tenses.

§ **46 e.** Compare the use of *when* and *before* and of *when* and *after*

in these pairs of sentences. Note the changes from affirmative to negative in the examples marked *a* and *b*.

1*a*. *When the bell rang, we had finished our work. The bell rang after we had finished our work.*

1*b*. *When the bell rang, we had not finished our work. The bell rang before we had finished our work.*

2*a*. *When I met George, he had already heard the news. I met George after he had heard the news.*

2*b*. *When I met George, he had not yet heard the news. I met George before he had heard the news.*

3*a*. *When Tom called to see me, I had already had breakfast. Tom called to see me after I had had breakfast.*

3*b*. *When Tom called to see me, I had not had breakfast. Tom called to see me before I had had breakfast.*

4*a*. *When the thief was caught, he had already disposed of the stolen goods. The thief was caught after he had disposed of the stolen goods.*

4*b*. *When the thief was caught, he had not yet disposed of the stolen goods. The thief was caught before he had disposed of the stolen goods.*

5*a*. *When we reached the football ground, the game had already started. We reached the football ground after the game had started.*

5*b*. *When we reached the football ground, the game had not yet started. We reached the football ground before the game had started.*

§ 46 **f**. The Past Perfect Tense is used with such verbs as *hope*, *expect*, *think*, *intend*, *mean* (= intend), *suppose*, and *want* to indicate that a past hope, expectation, intention, desire, etc., was not realized.

1. *We had hoped that you would be able to visit us.*

2. *I had meant (intended) to call on you, but was prevented from doing so.*

3. *She had thought of paying us a visit but the bad weather made her change her plans.*

4. *I hadn't expected that. That was something I hadn't expected.*

5. *They had wanted to help but couldn't get here in time.*

6. *I hadn't for a minute supposed (expected) that I should get the first prize.* (But my supposition or expectation was mistaken. I did get the first prize.)

7. *We had intended to go to Wales this summer.*

An alternative construction for unrealized or unfulfilled hopes, etc., when the main verb is used with a *to*-infinitive is the use of the Simple Past Tense and a perfect infinitive.

2. *I meant (intended) to have called on you but . . .*

7. *We intended to have gone to Wales . . .*

Of the two constructions the first is to be preferred.

FUTURE TIME

§ **47 a.** There are several constructions by which future activities and states are indicated. In addition to the Future Tense (with *will* and *shall*) there are numerous Future Tense equivalents. The question of how to indicate future activities or states is complicated by the fact that intention, likelihood, willingness, and other elements may have to be considered. Many of these are dealt with in Part 5. Here, therefore, they will be dealt with only briefly, with cross-references to the appropriate sections in Part 5.

§ **47 b.** When future events, etc., are not influenced by willingness, intention, or likelihood, we may speak of a 'pure future'. The most obvious examples of a 'pure future' are those in which there is no personal element.

1. *Tomorrow will be Sunday.*
2. *My father will be seventy-five in May.*
3. *I shall be fifty next birthday.*
4. *The holidays will soon be here.*
5. *On which day of the week will Christmas Day be next year?*
6. *Next century will begin on the first of January, 2001.*
7. *On June the twenty-first the sun will rise at 3.42 and set at 8.18.*
8. *Will there be time to visit both the Museum and the Art Gallery?*
9. *How long will the work take?*
10. *It's very late. Won't the shops be closed now?*

§ 47 c. In the ten examples above there is no element of willingness or intention. (In Nos. 2 and 3, the subjects are persons, but our age is something we cannot change by will or intention.) When the subject is a person or persons an element of willingness, intention, etc., may often be present. If, however, there are some external circumstances that may affect the future activity or state, the Future Tense is preferred to the various Future Tense equivalents. Note, in the examples below, the temporal or conditional clauses. These make the use of the Future Tense preferable to the use of the Future Tense equivalents that are discussed in the following sections.

1. *If you go out in all this rain, you'll get wet.*
2. *If you start at once, you'll arrive by six o'clock.*
3. *What shall we do if it rains on the day fixed for the sports meeting?*
4. *Unless the train is delayed by fog, we shall arrive at three o'clock.*
5. *I'm sure he'll come if you ask him.*
6. *They will be able to speak English well a year from now provided they work hard.*
7. *The fog won't clear until there's a wind to blow it away.*
8. *We shall never finish the work if we go on at this slow rate.*
9. *He'll help you if you ask him nicely.*
10. *You'll never save any money while you're so extravagant.*

NOTE

In many parts of the English-speaking world *will* is used in place of *shall* with the first person pronouns. The contracted forms *I'll* and *we'll* are common in speech. The negative *won't* is also used in place of *shan't*. As *I won't* and *we won't* are used to indicate refusal (see § 110 e), *shan't* is used with the first person pronouns for the pure future. For a comparison of *shall you* and *will you*, see § 109 k.

§ 47 d. To indicate a future activity or state that will begin before and continue after a point or period of future time, the Future Progressive Tense is used. See examples 1 to 6. This tense is also

used to indicate that an activity or state will extend over the whole of a future period of time. See examples 7 to 10.

1. *I wonder what he will be doing at this time tomorrow?*

2. *If you don't write, everybody will be wondering what has happened to you.*

3. *His children will be waiting at the airport to greet him.*

4. *In a few days' time I shall be enjoying the sunshine of West Africa instead of shivering here in an English winter.*

5. *When I get home, my wife will probably be listening to the wireless.*

6. *Let's hope it won't still be raining when we have to go to school.*

7 *We shall be travelling all night.*

8. *I shall be playing tennis all afternoon.*

9. *He says he will be working late every evening next week.*

10. *Harry will be doing his military service next year.*

§ 47 e. The last four examples in subsection d also illustrate the use of the Future Progressive Tense to indicate a future activity that is part of a plan or arrangement. Plans and arrangements are dealt with in § 113 and only a summary is given here.

When a future event is part of a settled programme, the Simple Present Tense may be used.

I leave for Dublin tomorrow.
Professor Black retires next year.
We dine with the Whites on Tuesday.

The last example suggests a standing arrangement. (We always dine with the Whites on Tuesdays.) It may, however, be used with reference to a single occasion.

For single events that form part of a programme or that have been planned for the future, the Present Progressive is more usual.

We're going to Dublin next week.
I'm taking the children to the Zoo on Sunday.
What are you doing tomorrow?
Where are you spending your next summer holidays?

The Future Progressive Tense is also used for future events that are planned.

We shall be going to Dublin next week.

See § 113 a and b for fuller notes on the use of these two tenses.

§ 47 f. The use of the finites of *be* and a *to*-infinitive indicates something planned for the future, either by the persons concerned or by others. See § 113 d and § 36 c, Table No. 68, for notes and examples.

§ 47 g. When intention is added to the idea of futurity, *going to* is usually preferred to *will-shall.*

Cf. { *I shall work harder next term.*
I'm going to work harder next term.

The first sentence makes a statement about the future; the second adds to this the idea of intention. See § 112 b for an account of this construction and numerous examples.

The construction *going to* is also used to indicate what seems to be likely or probable in future. The Meteorological Bureau may issue a weather forecast and state:

There will be rain over southern England during the night.

A person who is not a weather expert would probably say:

It's going to rain soon. Look at those black clouds.

For the use of *going to* to indicate likelihood and probability, see § 116 e and f. For the use of *will-would* for this purpose, see § 116 g.

§ 47 h. Promises, threats, and refusals are usually concerned with future time. The use of *will* and *shall* to indicate these is dealt with in § 110 c and e.

§ 47 i. *Will* and *shall* are also used to indicate willingness and determination. See § 122. They are also used to indicate and ask about wishes. See § 111 h. For their use in commands, requests, invitations, and suggestions, see § 109 d, h, k, l.

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§ 47 **h.** Promises, threats, and refusals are usually concerned with future time. The use of *will* and *shall* to indicate these is dealt with in § 110 c and e.

§ 47 **i.** *Will* and *shall* are also used to indicate willingness and determination. See § 122. They are also used to indicate and ask about wishes. See § 111 h. For their use in commands, requests, invitations, and suggestions, see § 109 d, h, k, l.

§ 47 j. A future activity or state can be indicated by the use of the adjectives *sure* and *certain* with a *to*-infinitive.

> *He's sure to be there.* (= He will certainly be there.)
> *They're certain to need help.* (= They will certainly need help.)
> *It's sure to rain.* (= It will certainly rain.)

§ 47 k. Future time is also indicated by the use of *to come* after a noun that stands for a period of time: *in the years to come* (= in future years).

§ 47 l. The Present and Present Perfect Tenses may indicate future time in temporal and conditional clauses.

> *I will pay you when (if) I have the money.*
> *We'll go home when the rain stops.*
> *I'll come as soon as I've finished writing this letter.*

The Past Tense may indicate future time in conditional clauses.

> *If I had the money* (now, or in future), *I should pay you what I owe.*

The Past Tense also indicates both present and future time in such sentences as:

> *It's time we started.*
> *I wish I knew.*

THE INCLUSIVE FUTURE

§ 48 a. To indicate activities that will or are considered likely to extend to and include a point or period of time in the future, the Future Perfect Tense may be used. The Future Tense points to the time of an activity; the Future Perfect Tense puts more emphasis on the completion of the activity and on the consequence of this. To indicate that an activity will be continuous, or that it will still be going on, the Future Perfect Progressive Tense may be used.

The examples below are not only of the Future Perfect Tenses; they compare these tenses with others.

Imagine a criminal who was, in 1940, sentenced to imprisonment for life. Speaking in the year 1950, he might have said:

1. *I have now been in prison for ten years.*

2. *In 1945 I had been in prison for five years.*

3. *In 1970, if I am still alive, I shall have been in prison for thirty years.*

Imagine a man who is now setting out on a business tour round the world, a journey that is to take nine or ten months. He could say:

4. *In six months from now I shall probably be in India.*

5. *By this time next year I shall have crossed three oceans and (shall) have seen four or five continents.*

Compare the next two examples. No. 6 indicates the time at which an activity will end. No. 7 looks beyond the completion of the activity to what follows the completion of the activity.

6. *I shall finish this work before five o'clock.*

7. *I shall have finished this work by five o'clock* (and shall then be able to sit back and rest).

Imagine an Oxford undergraduate who has already been at the university for three years and who is to take his degree examination ten months from now. We might say of him:

8. *By this time next year George will have taken his university degree.*

9. *When George gets his degree, he will have been studying at Oxford for four years.*

No. 8, non-progressive, indicates a completed act in future time. No. 9, progressive, indicates an activity represented as being continuous over a period of time that will end in the future.

§ 48 **b**. For the use of the Future Perfect Tense to indicate an assumption, see Probability and Likelihood, § 116 g.

> *You will have heard the news* (= I assume that you have heard it, it is likely that you have heard it).

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REPEATED OR HABITUAL ACTIVITIES, CONTINUING STATES, PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE

§ 49 **a.** There are several ways of indicating activities or states of this kind. The verb-groups *be in the habit of* or *have the habit of*, followed by a gerund, may be used to indicate habitual activities.

He is in the habit (has the habit) of scratching his head when he is puzzled.
Mr. Black is in the habit of staying up late at night to read.
Are you in the habit of reading in bed?

§ 49 **b.** The Simple Present Tense is used, often with an Adverbial of Frequency (see § 100).

The 2.30 train never stops at that station.
Mary often arrives at school late.
Harry gets up at seven o'clock every day.
You take both milk and sugar in your tea, don't you?
At what time do you (usually) have lunch?
This periodical appears once a week.
Why don't you shut the door quietly when you come in?
The child cries whenever she goes to the dentist's.
We wear woollen clothes in winter.

§ 49 **c.** The Present Progressive Tense is used with *always* (or an adverbial similar in meaning, such as *continually, constantly, perpetually, for ever*) to indicate frequent repetition, often with the suggestion of annoyance or irritation, or to call attention to a recent instance.

He's always grumbling.
His wife is always wanting money for new clothes.
Her husband is continually complaining of being hard up.

§ 49 **d.** The verb *can*, with *be* and a complement, indicates occa-

sional occurrence. It is used to indicate what persons, etc., are occasionally capable of being. *Could* is used for past time.

She can (could) be very sarcastic (charming, etc.) (i.e. is (was) sometimes very sarcastic, etc.).
Children can be a great nuisance.
The Bay of Biscay can be very rough.
The English climate can be pretty grim in winter.

Repeated or Recurrent Activities, Present and Future

§ **50 a.** The verb *will*, with an infinitive, is often used to indicate that something is likely to recur or to be repeated in the future because it has been observed in the past. The construction is generally used not of what is regular or habitual but of what occurs from time to time, or occasionally. This use of *will* and an infinitive is not common with the first person pronouns *I* and *we*.

Sometimes the machine will go wrong without any apparent cause.
At times he will work for six or seven hours without stopping.
She will sit outside her garden gate for hours at a time, looking at the passing traffic.

§ **50 b.** *Will* and an infinitive are also used, with stress on *will*, to suggest that something must always be expected, that there can be no change.

Accidents ˈwill happen. (There have always been accidents in the past and we must expect them in the future.)
Boys ˈwill be boys. (Boys always have been rough, noisy, etc., and we cannot expect them to be different.)

Repeated or Habitual Activities, Continued States, Past Time

§ **51 a.** When the reference is to past time only, the Simple Past Tense, usually with an adverbial or adverb clause to indicate the

period, is often used. For past activities an Adverbial of Frequency may be used.

There was a cinema here before the war.
When he lived in London, he went to the theatre once a week.
Whenever I went to the theatre, I sat in the cheapest seats.
During the summer we went swimming every day.
She always invited me to her dinner parties.

§ **51 b.** *Used to* and an infinitive is very common. (See § 10 a.)

There used to be a cinema here before the war.
He used to play football before his marriage.
People used to think (it used to be thought) that the sun travelled round the earth.
Life is not so easy here as it used to be.
You used to smoke a pipe, use(d)n't you? (or *didn't you?*)
That's where I used to live when I was a boy.

§ **51 c.** The verb groups *be in the habit of* and *have the habit of*, followed by a gerund, may be used. Cf. § 49 a.

He was in the habit (had the habit) of scratching his head when he was puzzled.

§ **51 d.** The Past Progressive Tense with *always*, etc. (as in § 49 c) may be used.

He was always grumbling.
She was for ever asking her husband for money with which to buy new clothes.

§ **51 e.** The verb *would* and an infinitive may be used. This is restricted to occasional occurrences of an activity. It is not used of a state that continued in the past. (Cf. § 50 a.)

He would cycle to school on fine days and would take the bus only when the weather was bad.
She would often come home tired out.
Sometimes the boys would play tricks on their elder brother.

Temporarily Repeated Activities or Continued States

§ 52. When we wish to indicate that an action or activity is, was, or will be repeated over a period of time, but is not to be considered as habitual, regular, or permanent, the Progressive Tenses may be used. This use of the Progressive Tenses is to be distinguished from their use to indicate an activity actually in progress. (See § 42 a for this.)

They usually have breakfast at eight o'clock, but this week, because Mr. Brown has to walk to the office instead of going by car, they're having breakfast at half past seven. (Cf. *they usually have*, Simple Present Tense, for what is regular and habitual, and *they're having*, Present Progressive Tense, for what is repeated during a limited period of time. Cf. *They're having breakfast now*, also Present Progressive Tense, for an activity now in progress.)

He was taking his children out much oftener in those days. (The use of the Progressive Tense limits the period of time. Cf. *He took* (*used to take*) *his children to the park every Sunday*, for what was habitual during a long period of time.)

We're having very cold weather at present. (Cf. *We usually have cold weather in January.*)

We've been having a lot of rain lately. (This points to frequently repeated periods of rain. Cf. *We've had a lot of rain.* This might refer to a single heavy fall of rain.)

VERBS OF PERCEPTION

§ 53. Verbs of Perception are verbs we use when we refer to the obtaining of knowledge through the five senses or through the mind. The chief verbs of perception are *see*, *hear*, *smell*, *taste*, *feel*. A few other verbs may be placed in this class, for example, *notice*, *observe*, *recognize*.

These verbs are not, as a rule, used in the progressive tenses except with a change of meaning, as illustrated below.

§ 54. The verbs *see* and *hear* are closely associated with *look at* and *listen to. Look* and *listen* denote voluntary activities that may continue over a period of time. *Look* and *listen*, therefore, are verbs that can be used in the progressive tenses. *Seeing* and *hearing* are often involuntary. Compare *see* and *look*, *hear* and *listen*, in these sentences:

I saw a man go past, but I didn't look at him.
They heard the teacher saying something, but didn't listen to him.

An effort to perceive may be implied with *see* and *hear*. In this case *can-could* may be used. Compare *look* and *see*, *listen* and *hear*, in these sentences:

I looked out of the window, but it was dark and I saw (*could see*) *nothing.*
We listened carefully, but heard (*could hear*) *nothing.*

The verbs *see* and *hear* are used in the simple tenses or with *can-could.*

Do you see that green bird near the stream?
Can you see Mary anywhere in the audience?
Do you see what they are doing?
Can you see what I have written on the blackboard?
Did you see Harry yesterday?
Can you hear what the speaker is saying?
Do you hear someone moving about in the next room?
Did you hear a strange noise?

Compare the use of *look* and *listen*:

He was looking at some old photographs.
Are you listening to the wireless? (If not, please switch it off.)

When *see* is used with a meaning different from that illustrated in the sentences above, the progressive tenses may be used. *See* may mean 'meet', 'have a talk or interview with'. *See* may be compounded with an adverb or preposition, as in *see somebody off* (*up*,

down, out), or *see to* (attend to) *something*. Here are examples of *see* used with such meanings, in the progressive tenses.

I'm seeing (paying a visit to) *my dentist this afternoon.*
Tom is seeing a lot of Mary (meeting her often, spending a lot of time with her) *these days.*
When you saw me at the airport this morning I was seeing a friend off.
I was just seeing a visitor out (going to the front door with him).
Who is seeing to the arrangements for the next meeting?

The verb *hear* is used of legal cases meaning 'try'. So we can say:

Which judge is hearing the case?

Hear may also be used of a lesson, etc.

My brother was hearing my recitation.

§ 55. The verb *smell* is used in several ways. When the reference is to something involuntary, the simple tenses or *can* and the infinitive may be used:

Do you smell something burning?
The horses smelt the water a mile off.
We could smell the dinner cooking in the next room.

When there is a conscious effort of perception, *can* is used:
Can you smell an escape of gas?

When the verb means 'send out an odour', the simple tenses are used:

It smells sweet (*sour, nice, disgusting*, etc.).
She smells of garlic.

When the verb is used of a conscious and deliberate use of the sense of smell, thus indicating an activity that may continue, the progressive tenses are possible:

The dog was smelling the lamp-post.
She was smelling the fish to find out whether it was fit to eat.

§ 56. The verb *taste*, like the verb *smell*, is used in various ways:

The milk tastes sour (has a sour taste).
Can you taste the ginger in this cake?
She was tasting the sauce to find out whether it was salt or sugar she had put into it.

§ 57. Note how the verb *feel* can be used:

These sheets feel damp (are damp when felt).
This feels like silk (is like silk to the feel).
I feel cold (*warm*, *comfortable*, *ill*, etc.).
The doctor was feeling the boy's arm to see whether the bone was broken. (Progressive tense for a deliberate and conscious activity.)

NON-CONCLUSIVE VERBS

§ 58. When the verb *see* is used of the sense of sight, it is a verb of physical perception. We also use the verb *see* for mental perceptions, that is, understanding something through the mind.

I can see the force of your argument.
I see what you mean.

When *see* has the meaning with which it is used in these two examples, it is not used in the progressive tenses. We do not, for example, say ♠ 'I am seeing what you mean.'

§ 59. There are numerous verbs, like *see*, that are used less frequently than other verbs in the progressive tenses. These verbs denote various mental perceptions, states of mind, or feelings. What the verb denotes may be a feeling such as liking or disliking, or it may be knowledge or understanding. Liking, disliking, knowing, and understanding cannot be started and stopped at will. We cannot say when they will reach an end, or a conclusion. So verbs such as *like*, *dislike*, *know*, and *understand* are sometimes called *non-conclusive verbs*. They denote a state or feeling that is assumed to have no end. Non-conclusive verbs, like verbs of perception,

are rarely used in the progressive tenses except with a change of meaning.

The progressive tenses indicate an activity that is in progress, in which the idea of *incompletion* may be prominent. If a man says: 'I am learning French', he tells us that his knowledge of French is incomplete. If a man says: 'I know French' or 'I understand French', he tells us that he already has an adequate knowledge of French, a knowledge that will remain with him (if he continues to use the language). *Know* and *understand* are non-conclusive verbs. They are not normally used in the progressive tenses.

§ **60.** The following lists are of verbs that are in all or some of their meanings non-conclusive.

1. For mental states and processes: *(dis)agree, (dis)believe, differ, doubt, find, foresee, forget, imagine, know, mean, notice, recall, recognize, recollect, remember, suppose, think* (that), *(dis)trust, understand.*

2. For emotional states: *desire, detest, feel* (that), *forgive, hate, hope, (dis)like, love, mind* (= object to), *(dis)please, prefer, want, wish.*

3. Miscellaneous: *appear* (= seem), *belong* (to), *consist* (of), *contain, depend, deserve, equal, find, matter, possess, resemble, result, seem, suffice.*

In order to show how these verbs are used as non-conclusive verbs, and how some of them may also be used, with different meanings, in the progressive tenses, examples and notes are given.

> *I differ from you* (have a different opinion) *on that point.*
> *He is always differing with* (quarrelling with) *his fellow teachers.* (Note the adverb *always.* See § 49 c.)
> *I doubt whether he will come.*
> *Do you doubt my word?*
> *He's always doubting my word.* (Progressive tense to suggest repetition. See § 49 c.)
> *I foresee no difficulty.*
> *He was always foreseeing difficulties that never occurred.*

I find (= perceive) *that I was mistaken.*

You're continually finding fault with me. (See § 49 c.)

I'm finding (= slowly discovering) *that this problem is more complicated than I had expected.*

We're finding out (= discovering, learning) *what really happened.*

I forget his name.

I forget the French word for 'ankle'.

He's forgetting his French. (In this case it is not a single word but a body of knowledge and skill of which gradual loss is possible. So the progressive tense may be used.)

Dear me, I'm forgetting my umbrella! (colloquial; I almost forgot my umbrella.)

I'm forgetting (colloquial; I almost forgot) *that I promised to visit Smith this evening.*

Are you forgetting your manners? (This might be said to a child who has failed to perform a conventional act of politeness. It is a kind of reminder.)

I don't imagine (= think, suppose) *that taxes will be reduced this year.*

He's always imagining dangers that do not exist. (See § 49 c.)

She was imagining all sorts of terrible things that might happen to her if she were left in the house alone.

I think it's going to rain.

We're thinking of (= considering the idea of) *going to Scotland for our holidays.*

I distrust that man.

He's always distrusting his own judgement. (See § 49 c.)

I feel (= am of the opinion) *that you are right.*

She's feeling better today. She feels better today. (There is little to choose between the last two examples.)

Do you like fish? (This asks about a taste that is assumed to be formed and to have reached completion—a permanent state.)

How are you liking your new job? (Here the progressive tense is used because it is assumed that the person to whom the

question is put has not yet arrived at a final state of either like or dislike.)

Do you mind if I open the window?

Mr. White is minding (= looking after) *the baby while his wife is out shopping.*

It depends upon circumstances. (Progressive tense is impossible.)

I depend (*I am depending*) *upon you.* (Either tense is possible.)

You deserve to succeed. (Progressive tense is impossible.)

He is deserving (= worthy) *of praise.* (This is not the progressive tense. *Deserving* is adjectival, not verbal.)

Tom wants to be a doctor.

What 's he wanting this time, I wonder? (The use of the progressive tense suggests that the person concerned makes frequent and repeated requests.)

That woman is wanting (= deficient) *in tact.* (*Wanting* is adjectival, not verbal.)

Note also *two pages wanting*, i.e. missing (from the book, etc.).

INCHOATIVE VERBS

§ 61. The term INCHOATIVE VERB is used for a verb that denotes the beginning, development, or final stage, of a change of condition. The commonest verbs in this class are *get*, *become*, and *grow*.

The old man is getting weaker.
Green has become the richest man in the town.
It is growing dark.

Other inchoative verbs are *come*, *go*, *turn*, *fall*, *run*, *wear*.

Will her dream come true?
Everything has gone wrong.
The leaves are turning brown.
He soon fell asleep.
Our supplies are running low.
The carpet is wearing thin.

In older English the verb *wax* was commonly used. It is frequent in the Authorized Version of the Bible. In modern English the use of *wax* is often humorous, as in *wax eloquent*.

§ **62.** These verbs are used in *VP 22* (see Table No. 56) and *VP 25B* (see Table No. 65). The Predicative may be an adjective (*grow fat*), a noun (*become a lawyer*), a prepositional phrase (*fall to pieces*), or a *to*-infinitive (*come to believe that. . .*).

The chief verbs in this class are dealt with below and illustrative sentences are given. In some cases there is no choice of verb (e.g. *come true, fall asleep*). In many contexts two or more verbs are possible (e.g. *grow, get, become, dark*). Where, in the examples, alternatives are given in parentheses, the alternative marked with an asterisk is stylistically or idiomatically preferable.

§ **63.** *Get* is the commonest of the inchoative verbs and is neutral or colourless. It is typical of colloquial style. It is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives. *Get* is more frequently used in the progressive tenses than are the other verbs in this class.

It's getting dark.
Eggs are getting scarcer.
It's getting near tea-time.
He often gets (becomes) quarrelsome when he's been drinking.
We're all getting (growing) older.
Do you know any get-rich-quick methods?

Get is also used with *to*-infinitives. In the progressive tenses the construction is equivalent to *become*. In the simple past tense it denotes a later, or the final, stage in a development. *Got to know*, for example, means 'arrived at the stage of knowing'. See § 36 b, Table No. 65.

The children didn't like living in the country when they first moved from London, but they're getting to like it (i.e. becoming fond of it) *now.*
He's getting to be (is becoming) quite a good pianist.
*They got to be (*became) friends.*

*He got to be (*became) my best friend.*
He soon got to know (i.e. learnt) *the wisdom of being patient.*
They got to words and then to blows (i.e. began arguing and then fighting).
*Does she often get (*fall) ill?*

Note also the common phrases *get rid of* and *get clear of*, and *get out of* (escape from) *doing something.*

§ 64. *Become* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives.

How did they become (get) acquainted?
She became (grew) suspicious.
You will soon become (get) accustomed to the climate.
Our work is becoming more interesting.
*The child became (*grew) pale and thin.*
*When it became (*grew, fell) dark, . . .*
*When these sums (payments, bills) become (*fall) due, . . .*
His mind is becoming unhinged.
*The leaves become (*turn) red in autumn.*

Become is also used with nouns. (Note that *get* is not used in *VP 22* with a noun as complement.)

On leaving school he became a bank clerk.
Green soon became the richest man in the town.
Mr. A. became a Director of the Company in 1942.
He became Chairman of the Board of Directors in 1950.

Note, in the two last examples, the use of the indefinite article before *Director* and the absence of any article before *Chairman.* When the reference is to an appointment or succession to an office or position normally held at one time by one person only, the definite article is possible but is usually omitted.

Are you likely ever to become a headmaster?
When Arnold became Headmaster of Rugby, . . .
When Churchill became Prime Minister, . . .

Become is rarely used with a prepositional phrase. *Come of age* is preferable to *become of age. Get out of order* is preferable to *become out of order.*

Become is not used with *to*-infinitives.

§ **65.** *Grow* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and with participles used as adjectives.

> *Time is growing (getting) short.*
> *The air had suddenly grown (*turned) cold.*
> *She trembled and grew faint.*
> *It's growing (getting, becoming) dark.*
> *The child is growing thinner.*
> *The sea is growing calmer.*

Grow is used with *to*-infinitives (though *to be* is often omitted before adjectives). See § 36 b, Table No. 65.

> *She's growing (getting) to be more and more like her mother.*
> *She's growing to like him better.*
> *He grew to believe that* (i.e. gradually formed the belief that)...
> Cf. *He came to believe that* (i.e. reached the stage of believing that). . . .

Grow is not used in *VP 22* with nouns or prepositional phrases.

§ **66.** *Come* is used with adjectives and their comparatives, and especially with past participial adjectives in *un-* that denote an undesirable or unsatisfactory condition.

> *Her dreams have come true.*
> *The hinge has come loose.*
> *Everything will come right in the end.*
> *When his first week's wages came (*fell) due, . . .*
> *My shoe laces have come undone.*
> *The knot came untied.*
> *The seam came unstitched (unsewn).*
> *The door came unhinged.*

Come is used with a few prepositional phrases: *come of age*, *come to pieces*, *come to grief*.

Come is used with *to*-infinitives. See § 36 b, Table No. 65.

How did you come to hear the news?
When the news came to be known, . . .
She came to believe that . . .
When I came to know them better, . . .
In some towns the streets have come to be used as parking places for motor-cars.

§ 67. *Go* is used with adjectives to denote a definite or decided change, usually but not always one for the worse. (Cf. *go wrong* and *come right*.)

*She went (*turned) pale at the news.*
*The milk went (*turned) sour.*
The telephone has gone dead.
The engine went dead.
*His hair has gone (*turned) white.*
He's going bald.
The meat has gone bad.
Fruit quickly goes rotten in hot weather.
He went mad (insane).
*Her cheeks went (*turned) a very pretty pink.*

Go is used with prepositional phrases.

He went off his head.
He went to sleep. (Cf. fell asleep.)
She went to pieces (i.e. lost her control of the game) *in the second set* (tennis).

§ 68. *Turn* is used with adjectives and their comparatives.

The weather has turned (become) much colder.
The apples are turning (becoming) red.
This ink turns black when it dries.
The milk has turned sour.

Turn is used with nouns. The noun is used without the indefinite article and the construction usually indicates an unexpected or undesirable change or development.

I hope you'll never turn Communist (become a Communist).
Is it wise for a great general to turn politician?
When her servant left to have a baby Mrs. Green had to turn cook (i.e. become the cook for the household).

Turn is used with prepositional phrases.

When it freezes water turns to ice.
The snow soon turned to rain.
The snow turned (in)to slush.

§ **69.** *Wear* is used with adjectives and their comparatives to indicate a change that results from use.

The stone steps have worn smooth (i.e. have become smooth through being trodden on).
The material is wearing thin.

Note also the phrase *wear into holes.*

§ **70.** *Run* is used with the adjectives *dry*, *low*, and *short* to denote a change to the condition specified.

The well has run dry.
The cows are running dry (i.e. not giving milk).
Supplies are running short (low).

§ **71.** *Fall* is used with adjectives (but not their comparatives). Its use in this pattern is restricted to:

He fell ill (sick).
It fell (became, grew) dark.
When do the rates (taxes) fall due?
The post of headmaster fell (became) vacant.
He soon fell asleep.
*At the President's entry everyone fell (*became) silent.*

Fall is used with *to* and a noun or gerund to denote the beginning of an activity or state. This is a literary use and the verb *begin* is more usual in ordinary style. The use of the preposition *on*, weakened to *a-*, is archaic.

He fell to speculating (i.e. began to speculate) *on the probable reasons for her refusal to marry him.*

She fell a-sobbing.

Fall is used with a few prepositional phrases: *fall out of favour*, *fall behind the times*, *fall to pieces*.

PART 3

Adjectives, Nouns, and Pronouns

§ **72.** Patterns for adjectives and (pro)nouns are not here set out in tables in the way used for verb patterns. An attempt is made to present in a systematic manner a good deal of information on the various ways in which adjectives and (pro)nouns are used and on some of the minor patterns into which they enter.

Definitions

§ **73.** The term NOUN, as used in the sections that follow, often covers the verbal noun, or gerund. The term ADJECTIVE is restricted to those noun modifiers that are used both attributively and predicatively (see § 74), generally subject to comparison (*larger*, *largest*), and to modification by adverbs of degree (*very* good, *too* heavy). Other parts of speech (such as nouns, participles, gerunds, adverbs), various phrases (e.g. prepositional and infinitive phrases) and clauses, when used to modify nouns, are treated under the term ADJECTIVE EQUIVALENT. See §§ 87–94.

The term DETERMINATIVE is used for those adjectives that do not describe. They point out or indicate individual persons, objects, concepts, etc. See § 86.

Descriptive Adjectives

§ **74.** Descriptive adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. When an adjective is used attributively, it is placed with the (pro)noun it qualifies: *a large box, red hair, tall boys, green ones.* In a few cases the adjective may follow the noun: *the Princess Royal.* When an adjective is used predicatively, it is used in the predicate either to refer to the subject (as in: *The boy is tall.*

His hair is red) or to the object (as in: *We painted the door green. What made him angry? Leave him alone. They found the prisoner guilty*).

The majority of descriptive adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. A small number (e.g. *afraid*, *asleep*, *awake*, *well*) are used only predicatively. Some of these are also used as adverbs. Some adjectives in *-en* (denoting the material of which an object is made) are used only attributively. See § 88 b.

Determinatives

§ 75. The determinatives are usually given under the terms definite and indefinite articles, demonstrative adjectives, adjectives of indefinite number and quantity, etc. As these terms are not important in considering questions of word order, they are not used in the tables below. Many of the determinatives are also used as pronouns. The term *determinative* is to be taken as covering both the adjectival and the pronominal uses of these words. E.g. *This* pen is mine (Adjectival use). *This* is my pen (Pronominal use).

The most common are, in alphabetical order: *a(n)*, *all*, *another*, *any*, *both*, *certain*, *each*, *enough*, *every*, *few*, *half*, *last*, *least*, *less*, *little*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *much*, *next*, *no*, *other*, (*my*, *his*, etc.) *own*, *plenty*, *same*, *several*, *some*, *such*, *that* (*those*), *the*, *this* (*these*), *whole*.

To these must be added the numerals, cardinal and ordinal, and the possessives.

NOUN PATTERNS

§ 76. The four noun patterns set out below illustrate the ways in which a noun may be modified other than by determinatives, adjectives, and adjective equivalents.

NP 1 Noun × *to*-infinitive (e.g. in his *anxiety to help*).
NP 2 Noun × prep. × (pro)noun (e.g. her *anxiety for news*).
NP 3 Noun × *that*-clause (e.g. the *fact that you speak French well*).
NP 4 Noun × prep. × conjunctive × phrase or clause (e.g. his *knowledge of how to do it*; his *knowledge of how Green had done it*).

NOUN PATTERN 1

Noun × to-*infinitive*

§ 77 **a.** A *to*-infinitive may be used as an adjunct to a noun. The noun is often one that is identical with, or is connected with, a verb that can be used with a *to*-infinitive. Examples:

1. *Another attempt to climb the mountain will be made next year.* (Cf. They will *attempt to climb* the mountain again next year.)
2. *The Prime Minister's decision to resign was welcomed by the Opposition.* (Cf. The Prime Minister *decided to resign.*)
3. *Anne's desire to please her mother-in-law was clear to all of us.* (Cf. Anne clearly *desired to please* her mother-in-law.)
4. *She expressed a wish to earn her own living.* (Cf. She *wished to earn* her own living.)
5. *The managing director announced his intention to retire.* (Cf. He said that he *intended to retire.*)
6. *You have not kept your promise to write to me more frequently.* (Cf. You *promised to write* to me more frequently.)
7. *You have no need to worry.* (Cf. You *need not worry.* You *don't need to worry.*)
8. *An agreement to differ is better than a noisy quarrel.* (Cf. We *agreed to differ.*)
9. *His refusal to help was a disappointment.* (Cf. He *refused to help.*)
10. *Your parents will not like your plan to live abroad.* (Cf. Do you *plan to live* abroad?)

§ 77 **b.** The noun is often one that has a corresponding adjective that is used with a *to*-infinitive. See § 82, *AP 1*. Examples:

1. *His anxiety to go was obvious.* (Cf. He was obviously *anxious to go.*)
2. *She was dying with curiosity to know where we had been.* (Cf. was very *curious to know* where . . .)
3. *He was filled with ambition to become famous.* (Cf. He was *ambitious to become* famous.)
4. *I feel doubtful about his ability to do the work.* (Cf. Is he *able to do* the work, I wonder?)

§ 77 c. The *to*-infinitive is used as an adjunct to other nouns that are unconnected with verbs or adjectives that are used with a *to*-infinitive. It is also used with pronouns. The infinitive may in some cases be looked upon as the equivalent of a relative clause. It is often passive in meaning. Note the use of the infinitive with ordinals and superlatives (and with *next* and *last*). In such cases the noun may be understood. Examples:

1. *He has a large family to support* (= that he must support).
2. *Is this the way to do it* (= in which it should be done)?
3. *This is the best book on the subject to appear* (= that has appeared) *this year.*
4. *The Government has announced new measures to deal with* (= that are designed to deal with) *inflation.*
5. *We have no garden to speak of* (= that is worth speaking of).
6. *There are many difficulties to overcome* (= to be overcome, that will have to be overcome).
7. *He is not a man to trifle with* (= to be trifled with, who can be trifled with).
8. *You have given me much to think about* (= to be thought about, that I shall think about).
9. *It's time to start* (= time we, you, they, etc., started).
10. *The next man to come* (= who came) *was Grey.*
11. *He was the first* (*man*) *to arrive* (= that arrived) *and the last to leave* (= that left).
12. *This is the fifth case of smallpox to occur* (= that has occurred) *in the town this year.*
13. *There are still fifty runs to make* (= to be made) *and only one wicket to fall.*
14. '*A maid whom there were none to praise, and very few to love.*' (Wordsworth).
15. *You have no occasion* (= cause) *to feel alarmed.*
16. *If you ever have an opportunity to come and see me, . . .*
17. *I'm not going to be the one to bell the cat.*

§ 77 **d.** The *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction also occurs after nouns. It is needed when the infinitive has its own subject.

Cf. { *Your plan to start early is praiseworthy.*
Your plan for me to start early does not appeal to me. }

Examples:

1. *There are several letters for the manager to sign.*
2. *Here is a new book for you to read.*
3. *Is there any need for you to hurry?*
4. *I'm in no hurry for him to start work.*
5. *He gave orders for the visitors to be shown in.*
6. *The decree for the army to mobilize may be issued any day now.*
7. *It is time for the children to go to school.*
8. *Your plan for Mr. Brown to succeed Mr. Green seems excellent.*
9. *I will post the books in plenty of time for them to reach you before you sail for South America.*
10. *There may be an opportunity for you to see the manager this afternoon.*

NOTES

Compare the examples in Table No. 53 (§ 33 g) in which the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction is the subject of the sentence after preparatory *it*.

It is an outrage for them to behave in that way. (I.e. For them to behave in that way is an outrage.)

The construction can often be replaced by a *that*-clause. (See § 79 below.)

5. *He gave orders that the visitors should be shown in.*
7. *It is time the children went to school.* (*That* is omitted after *time.*)

NOUN PATTERN 2

Noun × Preposition × (pro)noun

§ **78.** Many nouns are used with prepositions in a way that corresponds to the use of verbs and adjectives with prepositions. The noun and preposition should be learnt as a unit.

Cf. { *Dr. Brown specializes in chest diseases.*
Dr. Brown is a specialist in chest diseases. }

Cf. { *We were anxious for news of your safe arrival.*
Our anxiety for news of your safe arrival is deep. }

The preposition×(pro)noun in this pattern should be distinguished from the prepositional phrases used adjectivally to modify (pro)nouns. This is a variable element. E.g. *the girl with blue eyes; the girl in the corner; the girl by the window; a walk by the river; a walk in the moonlight*. See § 93.

In *NP 2* it is the noun and preposition that form the unit: *a specialist in* (chest diseases, lung surgery, etc.); *the reason for* (his absence, her late arrival, etc.); *an attempt at* (composition, etc.); *time for* (breakfast, etc.); *dissatisfaction with* (something).

The examples below illustrate this pattern. When there is a corresponding verb or adjective, examples are given for comparison.

1. *There is no need for anxiety.* (Cf. You need not be anxious.)
2. *Have you any use for this?* (Cf. Can you use this?)
3. *He expressed dissatisfaction with my work.* (Cf. He was dissatisfied with my work.)
4. *Harry takes (a) great delight in teasing his little sister.* (Cf. Harry delights in teasing . . .)
5. *There has been an attempt on the President's life.* (Cf. to attempt somebody's life. This is not much used.)
6. *This was his first attempt at English composition.* (Cf. to attempt impossibilities.)
7. *She has no idea of the value of money.*
8. *What's the reason for his absence?*
9. *We had a useful discussion on the question of how to raise money for the new playing fields.* (Cf. We discussed the question of . . .)
10. *They have decided to hold an inquiry into the question.* (Cf. to inquire into a question.)
11. *Have they made any inquiries after me?* (Cf. to inquire after someone.)
12. *There was a quarrel about the division of the stolen goods.* (Cf. The thieves quarrelled about the division . . .)
13. *We must make allowances for his youth and inexperience.* (Cf. We must allow for . . .)
14. *She feels an aversion to the man.* (Cf. She would probably be averse to marrying him.)

15. *I have not the least interest in his plans.* (Cf. I am not at all interested in his plans.)

16. *In conformity with your instructions . . .* (Cf. to conform with an order.)

NOTES

The preposition used with a noun is not always used with the corresponding verb. Thus, in example 9, the noun *discussion* is used with *on* (occasionally *of*, *about*), but the verb *discuss* is used in *VP 1*, i.e. without a preposition. It is important to learn the patterns of both noun and verb. Failure to do so may result in such errors as ♠ 'We discussed about the question for over an hour' instead of the correct 'We discussed the question for over an hour'. The words *discussion* and *discuss* are known only when the learner is familiar with the patterns: *a discussion* (*with* somebody, *between X* and *Y*) *on* (*about*) a problem; to *discuss* a problem *with* somebody.

Note that different prepositions may be needed in different contexts: *an attempt on* (*against*) *somebody's life; an attempt at English composition.* The preposition may also vary with the meaning of the noun it follows: *to have a concern* (= interest) *in a business; to feel concern* (= anxiety) *at something* (or *for somebody's health*).

When the learner has become familiar with the various combinations of noun and preposition by hearing and seeing them repeatedly in various contexts, choice of the right preposition will be simple. When in doubt, the learner should refer to a dictionary that indicates the prepositions with the noun entries, preferably with examples.

For examples of nouns followed by *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive, see § 77 d.

NOUN PATTERN 3

Noun × that-*clause*

§ 79. Compare these two sentences:

The news of her son's death was a great shock to her.
The news that her son had been killed was a great shock to her.

In the second sentence the *that*-clause may be looked upon as being in apposition to the noun *news*.

Compare this sentence:

The news that you brought was a great shock to her.

Here the clause is a relative clause. The relative pronoun *that* may be omitted (*The news you brought her . . .*). Or the relative

which may be used instead of *that*. The conjunction *that* in 'The news that her son had been killed' cannot be omitted.

Prepositions used with nouns as in *NP 2* cannot govern a *that*-clause. Occasionally the preposition is used with preparatory *it* before the *that*-clause. Compare these two sentences:

> *There can be no doubt about his being the best man for the position.*
> *There can be no doubt (about it) that he is the best man for the position.*

The use of preparatory *it* is not very common in this pattern.

The examples below illustrate the use of nouns in this pattern. Alternative constructions or paraphrases are given in parentheses.

1. *The thought that she would be separated* (the thought of being separated) *from her husband during his long and dangerous journey saddened Mrs. Brown.*

2. *The fact that her husband had* (the fact of her husband having) *a life assurance policy for £10,000 was a consolation to Mrs. Brown.*

3. *He expressed a hope that you would soon be well again* (a hope for your quick recovery).

4. *There can be no doubt that he is* (no doubt of his being) *intelligent.*

5. *I think there is little probability that they will succeed* (little probability of their succeeding) *in the attempt.*

6. *Is there any evidence that the accused men were* (any evidence of the accused men being) *in the village (on) the day the crime was committed?*

7. *Is there any likelihood (possibility) that the Government will be* (any likelihood, possibility, of the Government being) *defeated?*

8. *Rumours that an outbreak of rioting was likely* (rumours of probable rioting) *caused a panic among the shopkeepers.*

9. *Is there any certainty that they will carry out* (any certainty of their carrying out) *their undertakings?*

10. *There were unmistakable proofs that Jimmy had been eating* (proofs of Jimmy's having eaten) *jam.*

NOTES

This noun pattern enters into numerous compound conjunctions: *in spite (view) of the fact that; on condition that; on the supposition that; on the ground(s) that; on the understanding that; with the exception that.*

Note the pattern set out in Table No. 52 (§ 33 f). In this pattern the *that*-clause is not in apposition to the noun. It is the subject of the sentence after preparatory *it.*

It is a pity (that) you can't come. (I.e. That you can't come is a pity.)

In some of the alternatives given with the examples above, the preposition is followed by a possessive and a gerund. E.g. No. 5: *little probability of their succeeding*; No. 10: *proofs of Jimmy's having eaten.*

The possessive and gerund are often replaced by a (pro)noun and present participle, especially in colloquial style and usually when the use of the possessive is awkward, as in Nos. 6 and 7. Such combinations as 'the accused men's being in the village' and 'the Government's being defeated' are considered pedantic by many people. In No. 10, 'Jimmy's having eaten' would probably be 'Jimmy having eaten' in colloquial style.

NOUN PATTERN 4

Noun (×preposition)×Conjunctive×Phrase or Clause

§ 80. Compare these sentences:

Few people know how to do it.
Few people know how it should be done.
The knowledge of how to do it was not very common.
The knowledge of how it should be done was not common.

The first two examples illustrate the verb *know* in *VP 13* and *VP 15*. The third and fourth examples illustrate the noun *knowledge* in *NP 4*.

The preposition used with a noun in *NP 2* cannot govern *that*-clauses. It is, however, often used with an infinitive phrase or a clause introduced by a conjunctive. The preposition is not always used. As shown in the examples below, it is often omitted. The preposition *about* is often replaced by *as to*, or occasionally by *concerning*. The preposition is usually omitted after the noun *question* and before a dependent question introduced by *whether*.

For some of the following examples alternative constructions or paraphrases are given in parentheses. Note that although the

preposition may be omitted before a dependent question or clause, it is not omitted before a noun.

1. *You can have no idea (of) how anxious we have been* (no idea *of* the anxiety we have suffered).

2. *I have no idea why she left* (no idea *of* her reasons for leaving) *so suddenly.*

3. *I have no information about (as to, concerning) where she has gone, what she is doing, or when she is likely to be back.*

4. *I have not the least interest in what you propose to do.*

5. *He was in considerable doubt about (as to) whether he should accept the post* (in doubt *about* the advisability of accepting the post).

6. *I'm in doubt (about, as to) whether I should go or not.*

7. *I'm in doubt (about, as to) whether to go or not.*

8. *There has been no news about when the lecturer will arrive* (no news *about* the date of the lecturer's arrival).

9. *So far we have had no news as to which route the expedition has taken* (no news *about* the route taken by the expedition).

10. *Take care how you cross these busy streets.* (Cf. Take care *of* yourself.)

11. *His account of how he rescued the cat from the bottom of the well was quite dramatic.*

12. *Can you give me any information about (as to) when the committee will meet?*

13. *The problem of how to get the grand piano through the doorway baffled the workmen.*

14. *The question (of) whether to go to Wales or to Scotland for the holidays is still being discussed.*

15. *We must consider the question whether we can afford such huge sums for armaments.*

16. *I sometimes ask myself the question whether it was worth the effort.*

17. *The question sometimes comes to my mind whether it was worth the effort.* (or) *The question whether it was worth it sometimes comes to my mind.*

Instead of a dependent question the direct question may be used.

16. *I sometimes ask myself the question, 'Was it worth the effort?'*

17. *The question sometimes comes to my mind, 'Was it worth the effort?'*

Note the alternative positions of the dependent question in Nos. 16 and 17.

ADJECTIVE PATTERNS

§ 81. The adjective patterns set out below correspond closely to the noun patterns.

AP 1 Adjective × *to*-infinitive (e.g. *anxious to go*)
AP 2 Adjective × prep. × (pro)noun (e.g. *anxious for news*)
AP 3 Adjective (× prep.) × Clause (e.g. *glad that you succeeded; anxious about how they got on*)

The patterns are subdivided.

ADJECTIVE PATTERN 1

Adjective × to-*infinitive*

§ 82 a. The sentence 'You were unwise to accept his offer' means almost the same as 'Your acceptance of his offer was unwise.' The sentence 'Mary was cruel to refuse' means almost the same as 'Mary's refusal was cruel.'

The pattern for statements of this sort may be set out in this way:

(pro)noun × verb × adjective × *to*-infinitive, etc. (*AP 1A*)

The verb is usually *be*, though *seem* and *appear* may also be used. Sentences in this pattern may be recomposed in two other patterns. In these the adjective is given greater prominence by being placed near the beginning of the sentence. (See § 33 d, Table No. 50, *VP 22*.)

(i) *It* × verb (*be*) × adjective × *of* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive, etc.
It was unwise of you to accept his offer.

(ii) *How* × adjective × *of* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive, etc.
How unwise of you to accept his offer!

In the exclamatory type with *how*, *it is* (*it was*, etc.) may be inserted but is usually omitted.

How unwise (*it was*) *of you to accept his offer!*
How unwise of you (*it was*) *to go there alone!*

The examples below illustrate adjectives used in all three patterns.

1. *You are very kind to say so.*
   It's kind of you to say so.
   How kind of you to say so!
2. *She was stupid to make such a mistake.*
   It was stupid of her to make such a mistake.
   How stupid (it was) of her to make such a mistake!
3. *Mr. White was foolish to agree to the proposal.*
   It was stupid of Mr. White to agree to the proposal.
   How stupid of Mr. White to agree to the proposal!
4. *Mr. Green was unwise to lend money to Mr. Black.*
   It was unwise of Mr. Green to lend money to Mr. Black.
   How unwise of Mr. Green to lend money to Mr. Black!
5. *Mary was naughty to pull the kitten's tail.*
   It was naughty of Mary to pull the kitten's tail.
   How naughty of Mary to pull the kitten's tail!
6. *The boys were clever to see the solution of the problem so quickly.*
   It was clever of the boys to see . . .
   How clever of the boys to see . . .
7. *You were wrong to contradict the professor.*
   It was wrong of you to contradict the professor.
   How wrong of you to contradict the professor!

The exclamatory patterns are much commoner in colloquial style. Here are further examples.

8. *It was careless of you to leave your umbrella in the train.*
9. *How ill-natured of her to say such things about you!*
10. *Wasn't it polite of Harry to offer his seat in the crowded bus to that old woman!*
11. *How considerate it was of Miss Brown not to worry you when you had so many things to do!*

12. *How impudent of them to suppose that they would be invited to the party!*

13. *How brave of you to go into the burning building to save the cat!*

14. *It was good of Mrs. White to offer to help.*

15. *It's wicked of them to say such things.*

Note that the situation may make it unnecessary to use the *to*-infinitive. In such cases *that* may replace *it*.

Mr. X: '*I've left my umbrella in the train.*'
Mrs. X: '*That was very careless of you.*'

The following adjectives are used in these patterns: *absurd, bold, brave, careful, careless, civil, clever, (in)considerate, courageous, cruel, decent, foolish, good, (un)grateful, honest, ill natured, impudent, (un)kind, naughty, nice, (im)polite, rash, right, rude, saucy, silly, spiteful, stupid, thoughtful, thoughtless, wicked, (un)wise, wrong.*

§ 82 b. In the examples below (*AP 1B*) the *to*-infinitive expresses an action of the subject of the finite verb. In the sentence 'We were glad to see you', the infinitive *see* has the subject *we*.

The adjectives used in this pattern express emotion or desire. Compare such verbs as *regret* (be sorry), *rejoice* (be glad), *grieve* (be sad), which are also used with a *to*-infinitive. (See § 36 c, Table No. 66, *VP 25C*.)

1. *We were sorry not to see you at the meeting.*
2. *Everybody was anxious to know what had happened.*
3. *The children were impatient to start.*
4. *I shall be happy to accept your kind invitation.*
5. *She's quite content to live at home with her parents.*
6. *You're not afraid to go alone, are you?*
7. *Anne was eager to please her parents.*
8. *I'm glad to know you were successful.*
9. *They were all wild (mad) to own bicycles like those of the neighbours' children.*
10. *No one could be happier to learn of your success than I am.*

Past participles such as *amazed, delighted, pleased, gratified,*

grieved, disappointed, shocked, surprised, horrified, thrilled, excited (all expressing emotion) are also used in this pattern.

11. *We were delighted to hear of your success.*

12. *We were grieved to learn of your husband's death.*

13. *Your father will be pleased to see you after your long absence.*

14. *She was thrilled to learn that she had won a prize.*

15. *He was mortified to learn that he had not been elected.*

16. *She is disappointed to know that you won't be able to come to her birthday party.*

NOTES

The verbs of which the past participles are used in examples 11 to 16 can all be used in *VP 1* with preparatory *it*.

It amazed (delighted, grieved, etc.) me (him, them, etc.) to hear (learn, etc.) that . . .

The differences between the use of the adjectives *glad*, *sorry*, etc., with a *to*-infinitive and with a *that*-clause (see § 84 a) are worth noting.

I'm glad to come. (I come gladly.)
I shall be glad to come. (I shall come gladly.)
I was glad to come. (I came gladly.)
I'm glad (that) I came. (I came here and I am glad now.)
I was glad (that) I came. (I came and I was glad then.)

In the infinitive construction the adverbial element is prominent. The *that*-clause construction puts more emphasis on the time element.

§ 82 c. When the infinitive has its own subject, different from that of the main verb, the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction is used with the adjectives and past participles illustrated in the last section.

1. *Harry's parents are anxious for him to receive a good education.*

2. *Mr. and Mrs. Green are not keen for their only daughter to marry a poor school teacher.*

3. *I should be sorry for you to think I don't value your advice.*

4. *I'm quite willing for your brother to come with you.*

5. *Everyone is anxious for you to accept the position.*

6. *The children were impatient for the bus to start.*

7. *Anne was eager for her parents to meet the young man who had asked her to marry him.*

NOTES

These sentences can be recomposed with a *that-* or *if-*clause. Such clauses often require *should.*

1. *Harry's parents are anxious that he should receive a good education.*
3. *I should be sorry if you should think I don't value your advice.*
5. *Everyone is anxious that you should accept the position.*

The *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction as illustrated in the seven examples above should not be confused with the similar construction illustrated in Table No. 53 (§ 33 g). In this, the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive is the subject of the sentence (after preparatory *it*). E.g.

It was hard for him to live on his small pension.

The two types of sentence are analysed below.

Subject	*Verb*	*Predicative*
For him to live on his small pension	was	hard.
Everyone	is	anxious for you to accept the offer.

§ **82 d.** Other combinations of an adjective and a *to*-infinitive (*AP 1C*) are illustrated and paraphrased below.

1. *You are certain to need* (= will certainly need) *help.*
2. *Are you ready to start* (= ready for starting)?
3. *The weather is sure to be* (= will certainly be) *wet.*
4. *The old man is unfit to work* (= unfit for work).
5. *Is the house fit to live in* (= fit for living in)?
6. *He is slow to sympathize* (= slow in sympathizing) *with others.*
7. *He was prompt to act* (= prompt in acting).
8. *Was he willing to listen* (= ready to listen willingly) *to your arguments?*
9. *He was quick to realize* (= quickly realized) *his advantage.*
10. *Our team is bound to win* (= will win without a doubt).
11. *Which team is likely to win* (= will probably win)?
12. *You were lucky to escape being hurt* (= lucky in not being hurt).
13. *I am unable to go* (= cannot go) *today.*
14. *She is fortunate to have* (= fortunate in having) *such a kind husband.*

15. *Who was the first (second, next, last) to arrive* (= Who arrived first, second, next, last)?

16. *Cast iron is apt to break* (= has a tendency to break).

17. *We are liable to be* (= run the risk of being) *overheard here.*

§ 82 e. The *to*-infinitive can be used with almost any adjective or participle that is modified by the adverbs *too* or *enough* or that is used between *so* and *as*.

1. *Will you be kind enough to help me with this heavy box?*
2. *Will you be so kind as to lend me your pen?*
3. *This book is too large to go in my pocket.*
4. *This book is small enough to go in my pocket.*
5. *I've been too busy to write.*
6. *They were too tired to go any farther.*
7. *We were near enough to see everything.*
8. *We were too far away to see anything.*
9. *You are old enough to know better.*
10. *The child is too young to go to school.*

§ 82 f. The *for*×(pro)noun×*to*-infinitive construction is used after an adjective modified by *too* or *enough* when the action indicated by the infinitive is not (to be) performed by the subject of the main verb.

1. *The box is too heavy for you to lift.*

2. *They were standing near enough for us to overhear their conversation.*

3. *This town is far too wicked for a young and innocent girl like you to live alone in.*

4. *He was then a tiny boy; now he is too big for it to be desirable that I should mention his name.*

In the last example preparatory *it* occurs after *for*. The construction may be recomposed: *for any mention of his name by me to be desirable.*

§ 82 g. The sentence 'Copies of this book are not easily found' may be recomposed: 'Copies of this book are not easy to find.' It is also possible to say: 'It is not easy to find copies of this book.'

In this last sentence preparatory *it* is used for the infinitive phrase *to find copies of this book*. This construction is *VP 22B*, as set out in Table No. 50, § 33 d.

In the examples that follow, the *to*-infinitives (and in some cases the *to*-infinitives × preposition) are adjuncts that define the application of the adjectives. Cf. § 95 b.

1. *This room is difficult to heat.* (It is difficult to heat this room.)

2. *The paths were easy to find.* (It was easy to find the paths.)

3. *Has he been easy to get along with?* (Has it been easy to get along with him?)

4. *The story of their sufferings was painful to listen to.* (It was painful to listen to the story of their sufferings.)

5. *Such extreme poverty must be hard to bear.* (It must be hard to bear such extreme poverty.)

6. *She says her husband is hard to please.* (She says it is hard to please her husband.)

7. *The river is dangerous to bathe in.* (It is dangerous to bathe in the river.)

8. *Your question is impossible to answer.* (It is impossible to answer your question.)

9. *Will the examination be hard to pass?* (Will it be hard to pass the examination?)

In the examples above the adjectives are predicative. The adjective may also be used attributively. In the examples below the adjective is predicative in the first case and is used attributively in the second case.

10. *This nut is hard to crack. This is a hard nut to crack.* (It is hard to crack this nut.)

11. *This room is pleasant to work in. This is a pleasant room to work in.* (It is pleasant to work in this room.)

12. *That question is hard to answer. That is a hard question to answer.* (It is hard to answer that question.)

13. *That man is impossible to work with. He is an impossible man to work with.* (It is impossible to work with that man.)

14. *She's pleasant to talk to. She's a pleasant woman to talk to.* (It's pleasant to talk to her.)

NOTE

The alternatives in parentheses with preparatory *it* serve to show when a *to*-preposition can be used to define the application of an adjective.

Example No. 8 may be paraphrased: 'Your question is impossible in respect of finding an answer.' The statement ♤ 'Your football team is impossible to win' is not English. (Try converting it! ♤ 'It is impossible to win your team.') Either 'Your team cannot win' or 'It is impossible *for your team to win*' is required. The statement 'Your team is likely (certain) to win' is correct English. It can be converted to: 'It is likely (certain) that your team will win.'

ADJECTIVE PATTERN 2

Adjective × Preposition × (Pro)noun, etc.

§ 83 a. When adjectives are used predicatively they are often used in the pattern shown above. The preposition may govern a (pro)noun, gerund, or noun clause introduced by *what*. (For other kinds of clauses, see § 84 below.) Many past participles are used in this pattern. It is necessary to memorize the adjective (or past participle) and the preposition together.

An adjective may be used with one or more prepositions: angry *at* something, angry *with* someone; thankful *to* somebody *for* something; responsible *to* someone *for* something; anxious *for* news, anxious *about* one's future.

Many adjectives are used in more than one pattern. *Anxious* is used in *AP 1* (*anxious to know*) and also in *AP 2* (*anxious for news, anxious about his health*). Past participles such as *amazed* and *delighted* (see § 82b) are used in *AP 1* (*amazed, delighted, to learn that* . . .) and also in *AP 2* (*amazed, delighted, at the news*).

The prepositions to be used with adjectives are best learnt by observation of their use in speech and writing. When information is needed for composition, a good dictionary should be consulted.

The examples below illustrate various adjectives and past participles used in this pattern with a variety of prepositional objects.

1. Are you *afraid of the dog* (*of being bitten* by the dog, *of what people will think* if you run away from the dog)?

2. Aren't you *ashamed of your behaviour* (*of having behaved so badly, of what you did*)?

3. The doctors say that milk is *good for you* (*good for your health*).

4. The doctor told me that smoking is *bad for me* (*bad for my health*).

5. I'm quite *ignorant of their plans* (*of what they intend to do*).

6. He was *angry with her for having broken her promise.*

7. The supply is not *adequate to the demand.*

8. Be more *accurate in your work.*

9. Inaccuracy is *productive of error.*

10. He was not *aware of having done wrong.*

§ 83 **b**. Many of the adjectives used in this pattern are equivalent to a transitive verb used in *VP 1*. It is often preferable to use the verb. The use of the adjective and preposition is in some cases rather pompous.

1. You *are forgetful of the fact that* . . . (Preferable: You *forget that* . . .)

2. I *am ignorant of* (preferable: I *do not know*) *what they intend to do.*

3. Inaccuracy *is productive of* (preferable: *produces*) *error.*

4. Your work *is deserving of* (preferable: *deserves*) *praise.*

5. Do not *be envious of* (preferable: *envy*) *your neighbours.*

There are many other combinations of adjective and preposition that can be replaced by a verbal construction.

6. He *is desirous of obtaining* (preferable: *desires, wishes, to obtain*) *a good situation* in the civil service.

7. The old man *is dependent upon* (or *depends on*) *the earnings of his children.*

§ 83 **c**. The *for*×(pro)noun×*to*-infinitive construction is used after adjectives, including adjectives that are not otherwise used with *for*. The construction is equivalent to a *that*- or *if*-clause.

I am anxious for you and my sister to become acquainted (= anxious that you and my sister should become acquainted).

I shall be delighted for [illegible] *to* [illegible] (= delighted if your sister will come, [illegible]

This pattern should not be confused with the pattern in which the *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction is used after introductory *it*, as in:

It's impossible for anyone to be angry with her.

(See Table No. 53, § 33 g.)

ADJECTIVE PATTERN 3

Adjective (× preposition) × Clause or Phrase

§ 84 a. The preposition used after an adjective and with a (pro)-noun, gerund, or *what*-clause is always omitted before a *that*-clause. It is very frequently omitted before clauses and infinitive phrases introduced by a conjunctive. Compare:

(i) *She was not aware of the facts.*
(ii) *She was not aware that her husband earned £10 a week.*
(iii) *She was not aware (of) how much her husband earned.*

In (i) *of* is essential; in (ii) *of* cannot be used; in (iii) *of* may be used but is often omitted.

Similarly in:

(i) *Be careful about it.*
(ii) *Be careful (that) you don't drop it.*
(iii) *Be careful how you hold it.*

Compare the similar omission of the preposition after certain verbs that are normally used with a preposition.

She doesn't care for that man. (*VP 24A*)
She doesn't care who marries him. (*VP 24B*)

He boasted of his success. (*VP 24A*)
He boasted of having won the first prize. (*VP 24A*)
He boasted that he had won the first prize. (*VP 24B*)

§ 84 b. Adjectives and past participles that denote perceptions, emotion, and desire are used with *that*-clauses.

1. *Are you aware that you are sitting on my hat?*
2. *Are you sure (certain, confident) (that) he's honest?*
3. *She is glad (delighted, surprised) (that) you are not going abroad.*

4. *I'm sorry (that) you can't come.*
5. *They were disappointed that you were unable to come.*
6. *I'm afraid I don't know.*
7. *We were all anxious that you should return.*

NOTES

6. After *afraid* the *that* is almost always omitted. When *afraid* is used in this pattern, it may indicate regret or apology as well as fear.

I'm afraid (I regret) *I shall have to leave now.*

When *afraid* is used to indicate fear, *AP 1* and *AP 2* are also used.

He is afraid he may fail. (*AP 3*)
The boy was afraid to go to bed in the dark. (*AP 1*)
Are you afraid of the dog? (*AP 2*)

7. When *anxious* is used with a *that*-clause, or with *for*, it indicates desire, not mental unease.

We were all anxious that you should return.
We were all anxious for your return (*for you to return*). (I.e. We all wanted you to return.)

Cf. *We were all anxious* (i.e. worried) *about your health.*

§ **84 c.** For the difference between the use of a *to*-infinitive and a *that*-clause after adjectives indicating emotions (e.g. *I was glad to come* and *I was glad I came*), see § 82 b, Notes.

A *that*-clause is, of course, needed when there are different subjects.

I'm glad (*that*) *you came.*

§ **84 d.** This pattern must not be confused with the pattern illustrated in Table No. 52 (§ 33 f), in which the *that*-clause is the subject of the sentence after preparatory *it.* E.g.:

It was unfortunate that the weather was so wet. (I.e. That the weather was so wet was unfortunate.)

Cf. *We were unfortunate in having wet weather for the holidays.*

§ **84 e.** Before a clause or infinitive phrase introduced by a conjunctive, the preposition is, in most cases, omitted.

1. *I'm not certain* (about) *where this ought to be put.*

2. *They were uncertain whether they ought to start* (*whether to start or not*).

3. *He is doubtful* (about) *whether he can afford it.*

4. *Is your father aware* (*of*) *how you've been behaving during his absence?*

5. *We felt curious* (*as to*) *how he would receive the suggestion.*

6. *I am ignorant* (*of*) *whom I have the honour to address.*

7. *I'm not sure why he wants it.*

8. *We were worried about where you had got to.*

9. *Be careful how you cross the street.*

10. *He's very fussy* (*about*) *how his meals are cooked.*

11. *I'm not quite sure how to do it* (*how it is done*).

NOTES

5. *As to* or *concerning* may be used after an adjective instead of *about*. It is seldom necessary and is better avoided.

7. Compare the use and omission of the preposition in these examples with *sure*.

{*I'm not quite sure of that.*
{*I'm not quite sure whether he's still here.*

§ 85. The examples below illustrate the use of the adjectives *glad*, *sorry*, *sure*, *anxious*, and *careful* in the three patterns.

{*AP 1B* *I shall be glad to have your help.*
{*AP 2* *I shall be glad of your help.*
{*AP 3* *I'm glad* (*that*) *you can help me.*

{*AP 1B* *I'm sorry to hear* (*that*) *your brother failed in his exams.*
{*AP 2* *I'm sorry about your brother's failure in his exams.*
{*AP 2* *I'm sorry for your brother.*
{*AP 3* *I'm sorry* (*that*) *your brother failed in his exams.*

{*AP 1* *He's sure to come.*
{*AP 2* *Are you sure about* (or *of*) *that?*
{*AP 3* *I'm not sure* (*about*) *where this ought to go.*

{*AP 1B* *Harry is anxious to start early.*
{*AP 1B* *We're anxious for Harry to start early.*
{*AP 2* *They will be anxious for news of your arrival.*
{*AP 2* *They're anxious about their daughter's health.*
{*AP 3* *I'm anxious that he should come.*

AP 1 *Be careful not to let that vase fall.*
AP 2 *Be careful with that vase.*
AP 3 *Be careful (that) you don't drop that vase.*

DETERMINATIVES

§ 86 a. Information on the meanings of the determinatives (see § 75) can be obtained from dictionaries. The sections that follow are concerned chiefly with word order. Patterns and Tables are used for this.

Determinatives are used with nouns. Nouns are classified as Proper Nouns (e.g. *London, John*), Common Nouns (e.g. *town, boy*), Material Nouns (e.g. *wood, bread*), Abstract Nouns (e.g. *truth, beauty, goodness*), and Collective Nouns (e.g. *crowd, flock*). Although these terms are sometimes useful, they are not needed for the purpose of setting out the ways in which the determinatives are used with nouns. For this purpose it is sufficient to place nouns in two main classes, nouns that denote what can be counted (things such as *books, pens, apples*) and nouns that denote what cannot be counted (e.g. *bread, traffic, nonsense, knowledge*). These two classes may be called *countables* and *uncountables*.

There are many nouns that belong to both classes. *Time* is a countable noun when it means 'occasion'. *How many times have you been absent this term?* It can be an uncountable noun. *How much time did you spend on your homework?* These differences are dictionary questions, not grammar questions. In *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* indications are given with the noun entries (by means of the symbols C and U) to show which nouns, and which meanings of nouns, are used as countables and uncountables.

There is a tendency for *much* and *many*, when not modified by *how* or *too*, to occur in negative and interrogative sentences and not normally in purely affirmative sentences. In affirmative sentences such compound determinatives as *a lot (of)*, a *large number (quantity, amount) (of)*, and *plenty (of)* are preferred.

Table No. 70

This table illustrates determinatives with countables.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">There are
We have</td><td>some
no
several
a few
two or three
many</td><td>(more)</td><td rowspan="3">books</td><td rowspan="3">in the next room</td></tr>
<tr><td>a lot
lots
plenty</td><td>more</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">plenty of
a lot of
a large number of
enough</td></tr>
</table>

Table No. 71

In this table the determinatives are used with *of*. The (pro)-nouns are again countables.

I should like	some several a few two or three many a lot lots plenty a few	(more) of	these those these small apples those red apples your best apples

Table No. 72

In this table the nouns are uncountables.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">There is
We have</td><td>some
no
(not) much</td><td>(more)</td><td rowspan="3">tea

bread

sugar</td><td rowspan="3">in the storeroom</td></tr>
<tr><td>a great deal
a good deal
a lot
lots
plenty</td><td>more</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">a lot of
a large quantity of
plenty of
(not) enough</td></tr>
</table>

Table No. 73

In this table the (pro)nouns are uncountables.

<table>
<tr><td>I should like</td><td>some
no
a little
a good deal
much
a lot
plenty</td><td>more of</td><td>this
that
the brown flour
your white flour</td></tr>
</table>

NOTES

Some is usually replaced by *any* in negative and interrogative sentences and in sentences indicating doubt. The use of *some* in a question invites or expects the answer 'Yes'.

Aren't there some more books in the next room?

Cf. *Are there any more books in the next room?* (The speaker is uncertain of the answer.)

Many may be modified by *a good* and *a great*.

Table No. 74

This table illustrates the determinatives used pronominally of countables.

None Both Several Two or three Few A few Some Many A large number A lot Lots All	of	them these those		were broken
		the these those my (your, etc.) John's	eggs	

Table No. 75

This table illustrates the determinatives used pronominally of uncountables.

All Some None Much A great deal A good deal Little A little A lot Lots	of	it this that		is fertile
		this that the our Mr. Green's	farm land	

Much and *many* in these tables may be preceded by *how*, *not*, and *very*. *Few* may be preceded by *very* and *a few* and *all* by *not*.

§ **86 b.** *All* and *both* precede possessives and other determinatives. *All* precedes numerals.

> *Both the girls are clever. Both these boys are stupid. Both John's sisters play the piano. Is all this money yours? Are all these books yours? All the books are new. All Mr. Green's children go to school. All six boys passed the examination.*

All, both, and *each* are used pronominally with *of.*

> *All of us want to go. Both of them came. The headmaster shook hands with each of the prizewinners.*

When *all, both,* and *each* are used in apposition, they have the same position in the sentence as the Mid-Position Adverbs. They are placed before ordinary finites, after unstressed anomalous finites, and before stressed anomalous finites. Compare Tables Nos. 82 and 83 (§ 100 c, d).

Table No. 76

We	both	think so.
We	all	want to go.
They	both	play well.
A, B, and C	each	made different suggestions.

Table No. 77

They	can	both	play well.
They	were	both	absent.
They	have	all	gone.
You	will	both	be late.
You	may	all	go now.
A, B, and C	have	each	made different suggestions.

The two examples below illustrate the pre-finite position with stressed anomalous finites.

I asked both of them to come and they both ˈdid *come.*
I asked all of them to come and they all ˈdid *come.*

Compare 'they both ˈ*did* come' (stressed A.F.) and 'they have both come' (unstressed A.F.).

All may be an adverb (meaning 'completely' or 'wholly'). It has to be distinguished from the pronoun *all* used in apposition (as shown in the tables above).

Your face is all covered with dust. (This can only be the adverb.)
Their faces were all covered with dust. (This, too, is the adverb.)
The soldiers were all covered with dust. (This might be the adverb. But it might mean: *All of them were covered with dust.*)
Each may be an adverb meaning 'apiece'.
He gave the boys a shilling each.
Cf. *He gave each of the boys a shilling.*

ADJECTIVE EQUIVALENTS

§ 87. A noun may be modified by various parts of speech, and by phrases and clauses, used as adjective equivalents. These are dealt with below under the following headings:

1. Nouns (as in: a *flower* garden).
2. Participles and Gerunds (as in: the *coming* months, *eating* apples).
3. Adverbs (as in: the *above* statement).
4. Possessives and group genitives (as in: *John's* hat; a *twenty minutes'* walk; that bad temper *of yours*).
5. Prepositional Phrases (as in: the boy *in the corner*).
6. Relative Clauses.

(1) *Nouns as Modifiers*

§ 88 **a.** Nouns are frequently used attributively. The two nouns may or may not be joined by a hyphen. Whether a hyphen is to be used or not, and how the stresses are placed, are matters of usage. There are numerous variations. The head of a school, for example, is a *ˈhead ˈmaster* (two separate words), a *ˈhead-ˈmaster* (compound, hyphen), or a *ˈheadˈmaster* (one word, no hyphen). In all three cases, however, there are two even stresses. Other compounds with *head* are: *ˈheadache, ˈheadˈquarters, ˈheadphone, ˈheadlights, ˈhead ˈwinds* (two words, winds blowing from the front).

Examples of nouns used attributively are: the *parish* church; *cannon* balls; a *brick* wall; the *evening* paper; a *garden* flower (a kind of flower that is grown in gardens); a *flower* garden (a garden in which flowers are grown); your *family* name; a *school* dictionary; a *silver* spoon; a *return* ticket; *dining-room* furniture (in which the first element is itself a compound of a gerund and a noun); a *cricket* match; a *lunatic* asylum (an asylum for lunatics). (Cf. *a lunatic proposal* in which *lunatic* is an adjective meaning 'outrageously foolish'.)

When the combination of noun and noun is written and printed as one word (e.g. *milkman, steamship*), or with a hyphen (e.g. *bicycle-pump, steam-power*), it may be considered as a compound. Analysis of the parts is unnecessary.

§ 88 **b.** Some nouns have corresponding adjectives (as *silk, silken, silky*). In some contexts, therefore, it is important to distinguish between the use of a noun as a modifier and the use of the corresponding adjective(s). This is often the case with nouns that denote materials. Cf. *wood* and *wooden.* A *wooden* box and a *wooden* leg are objects made of wood. A *wood* fire (never ♠ a *wooden* fire) is a fire on which wood is burnt. *Wooden* is used attributively but not (except occasionally in its figurative sense of 'stolid') predicatively. We say a *wooden* box but not ♠ *This box is wooden.* (In the predicate we use *made of wood.*)

Other nouns that denote materials have adjective forms in *-en*

or -*y*. *Silk, silky, silken; wool, woolly, woollen; stone, stony; gold, golden; brass, brassy, brazen; glass, glassy; lead, leaden.*

Nouns that denote materials are regularly used as modifiers: *silk* stockings; a *stone* wall; a *gold* watch; a *brass* bowl; *wool* prices; *cotton* cloth; a *lace* collar; a *glass* roof; *lead* pipes.

The adjectives derived from these nouns are in some but not all cases used attributively to denote the material of which objects are made: a *wooden* box; *woollen* stockings; *leaden* roofs.

Often however, such derivatives in -*en* and -*y* are used with different meanings, usually figurative: the *Golden* Age; a *golden* opportunity; *leaden* (heavy) skies; *brazen* impudence; a *silvery* voice; a *stony* road (covered with stones); a *stony* (hard) heart.

Apposition

§ 89. A noun in apposition may serve to qualify or identify another noun or pronoun: *Green, the bookseller; at Green('s), the bookseller's; we English; my friend Tom; Mr. Brown, my brother-in-law.*

(2) *Participles and Gerunds as Modifiers*

§ 90 a. Some present participles have become completely adjectival. They are used both attributively and predicatively and have comparative and superlative forms. They may be modified by adverbs.

Can't you find me a more interesting book?
This book is not very interesting.
That is the most amusing story I have ever heard.
Mary is more charming than her sister.
How charming she is!

Most present participles cannot be used in the ways illustrated in the sentences above. Many present participles can be used attributively but have no comparative or superlative forms and cannot be modified by adverbs. They are not completely adjectival, though they are sometimes called participial adjectives. When they occur in the predicate they are present participles and not adjectives.

When a present participle is used attributively, there is a primary stress on the following noun. There may be a primary stress, or only a secondary stress, on the participle.

When a gerund is used attributively, there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on the following noun. A gerund used as an adjective equivalent has no comparative or superlative.

Examples of present participles used attributively: *running water; a sleeping child; a burning building; a dying soldier; smiling women; the coming months; the following chapter; growing children; flying fish.*

Examples of gerunds used attributively: *walking-stick; boiling-point; ploughing match; swimming race; blotting-paper; eating apples* (i.e. apples for eating uncooked, dessert apples); *cooking apples; laughing-stock; dining-room; growing pains; dancing-master.*

As the examples show, the combination of gerund and noun is often written and printed with a hyphen. There is, unfortunately, no standard usage for the use or non-use of the hyphen in such combinations.

There are two points to note about the use of the present participle and the gerund. The first is the question of meaning and the second is the question of stress. Compare:

> ˈ*growing* ˈ*children*, children who are growing.
> ˈ*growing* ˌ*pains*, pains in the limbs, felt by young people during growth.

In *growing children* the stresses are even. In *growing pains* there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on *pains*. Compare: ˈ*dancing* ˈ*doll*, a doll that dances; ˈ*dancing-*ˌ*master*, a teacher of dancing. In *dancing doll* the stresses are even. In *dancing-master* there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on *master*.

It is usually a simple matter to see how an *-ing* word functions in meaning and to see whether it is used as a present participle or as a gerund. It is then possible to know how the stresses should be placed.

§ **90 b.** Past participles are also used as adjective equivalents. Some of them are so completely adjectival that they have comparative and superlative forms and may be modified by adverbs.

He is the most distinguished scientist in the country.
She had rather a pleased look on her face.

Many past participles take the prefix *un-*: *an unexpected meeting; unsettled weather; unarmed troops; undeserved punishment.*

§ **90 c.** Some verbs have more than one past participle. The different forms are dictionary questions, not grammar questions. Cf. *cloven hoof, cleft palate; swollen lips, swelled head* (conceit); *shrunk cloth, shrunken limbs.* Note also *ill-gotten gains, gotten* not being otherwise used (except in American English where it survives from an earlier period of English).

(3) *Adverbs as Modifiers*

§ **91.** Some adverbs are used to modify nouns: *the above statement* (the statement that is above); *the then government* (the government in power at that time); *in after years* (in the years that came, or will come, afterwards); *the up* (*down*) *train* (the train to (from) London): *the up platform* (at which up trains stop); *the down stroke* (e.g. in writing a letter of the alphabet); *an inside passenger* (one riding inside the old type of stage coach).

Adverb phrases are sometimes hyphenated and used attributively: *the half-past-seven train* (the train that leaves at half past seven); *a pen-and-ink drawing* (one made with a pen and ink); *an up-to-date dictionary* (one that has been brought up to date); *an out-and-out failure* (i.e. a complete failure).

For information on which adverbs are used as adjective equivalents a dictionary should be consulted. Although *the above statement* is normal usage, we cannot say ♠ *the below statement.* For this we must say *the statement below* (i.e. the statement that is below, or lower down the page, etc.).

(4) *Possessives and Group Genitives*

§ **92 a.** Possession is expressed in many ways. It can be expressed

When a present participle is used attributively, there is a primary stress on the following noun. There may be a primary stress, or only a secondary stress, on the participle.

When a gerund is used attributively, there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on the following noun. A gerund used as an adjective equivalent has no comparative or superlative.

Examples of present participles used attributively: *running water; a sleeping child; a burning building; a dying soldier; smiling women; the coming months; the following chapter; growing children; flying fish.*

Examples of gerunds used attributively: *walking-stick; boiling-point; ploughing match; swimming race; blotting-paper; eating apples* (i.e. apples for eating uncooked, dessert apples); *cooking apples; laughing-stock; dining-room; growing pains; dancing-master.*

As the examples show, the combination of gerund and noun is often written and printed with a hyphen. There is, unfortunately, no standard usage for the use or non-use of the hyphen in such combinations.

There are two points to note about the use of the present participle and the gerund. The first is the question of meaning and the second is the question of stress. Compare:

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> ˈ*growing* ˌ*pains*, pains in the limbs, felt by young people during growth.

In *growing children* the stresses are even. In *growing pains* there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on *pains*. Compare: ˈ*dancing* ˈ*doll*, a doll that dances; ˈ*dancing*-ˌ*master*, a teacher of dancing. In *dancing doll* the stresses are even. In *dancing-master* there is a primary stress on the gerund and a secondary stress on *master*.

It is usually a simple matter to see how an *-ing* word functions in meaning and to see whether it is used as a present participle or as a gerund. It is then possible to know how the stresses should be placed.

Socrates) and in a few fixed phrases such as: *for goodness' sake*, *for conscience' sake*, and *for old acquaintance' sake*.

Note that *boys*, *boy's*, and *boys'* have the same pronunciation [boiz].

§ 92 **e.** The genitive ending is used with the pronoun *one*, and the compounds of *one* and *body* with *some*, *any*, *no*, and *every*: *one's*, *someone's*, *anyone's*, *no one's*, *everyone's*, *somebody's*, *anybody's*, *everybody's*.

When these pronouns are used with the adverb *else* the genitive ending is added to *else*;

This must be somebody else's hat; it certainly isn't mine.

§ 92 **f.** If two or three names are joined by *and*, and if the names indicate joint owners, the genitive ending is added to the last name only.

We visited Peak and Pike's typewriter factory last week.

If there is not joint ownership or association, the genitive ending is added to each noun.

My wife's and my daughter's birthdays both come in May.

The genitive ending is added to a group of words that form a sense unit: *the Prince of Wales's birthday; my son-in-law's employer; the Commander-in-Chief's visit.*

There is a group genitive in the old puzzle: *The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the daughter of Pharaoh's son.* The group genitive is *daughter of Pharaoh's.* The sentence may be recomposed: *The son of Pharaoh's daughter is the son of the daughter of Pharaoh.*

§ 92 **g.** As there is no difference in pronunciation between singular and plural when the genitive ending is used with a class noun that denotes a person, the use of the genitive with plural nouns is often better avoided in speaking. *Doctor's* and *doctors'* sound the same. When there is a possibility of misunderstanding, the use of the *of*-phrase is to be preferred.

Cf. { *What's the doctor's opinion?* (Singular)
{ *What's the opinion of the doctors?* (Plural)

by the use of the verbs *have* (colloquially *have got*), *belong*, *own*, and *possess* or of such nouns as *owner* or *possession*.

They have a large garden. What a lot of books you've got! Who does this land belong to? (Formal: *To whom does this land belong?*) *He owns* (*possesses*) *two motor-cars. Who is the owner of this land? Before leaving the country you must be in possession of a valid passport.* (Formal for *must have a valid passport.*)

§ **92 b.** Possession is also expressed by the use of the possessive adjectives and pronouns: *my*, *mine; our*, *ours; his*, *his; her*, *hers; its; your*, *yours; their*, *theirs.*

That book is mine. That is my book.

Nouns may be used in the genitive case.

That hat is John's. That is John's hat.

§ **92 c.** Nouns may be modified by prepositional phrases with *of*: *at the top of the page; at the foot of the mountain.* The phrase can in some cases be replaced by the noun in the *of*-phrase used attributively: *the legs of the table, the table legs; the City of New York, New York City.*

The possessives, the genitive case, and the prepositional phrase with *of* denote not only possession in the sense of ownership but also various relationships and associations.

§ **92 d.** For the genitive case, *s* preceded by an apostrophe is added to singular nouns (*Tom's hat, a woman's hat, the boy's father*) and to plural nouns if the plural does not end in *s* (*men's shoes, women's hats, children's books*). With plural nouns ending in *s*, only the apostrophe is added (*the boys' books, the girls' dolls*).

When a noun that denotes a person or is the name of a person ends in a sibilant sound [s, z, ʃ, ʒ], the possessive is, except in a few cases, written with an apostrophe *s* and sounded as an additional syllable: *St. James's Park, Mr. Jones's children, a witch's broomstick, the judge's wig, Alice's blue eyes, the prince's nurse.* Exceptions are: *Jesus'* (not ♠ *Jesus's*), *Achilles' tendon.* The apostrophe is used without *s* with a few other Greek names (*Xerxes,*

this Jim's old friend. We say: *an old friend of mine; this old friend of Jim's.* Here are further examples:

> *That remark of Green's was impertinent. That is no business of yours. What business is that of yours?* (= What business of yours is that?) *We're getting tired of that bad temper of yours. Keep that big head of yours out of my light.*

In the last two examples *that bad temper of yours* and *that big head of yours* express more feeling than *your bad temper* and *your big head.* (*That* often has this function. Cf. 'Oh, *that* woman!' with stress on *that*, often suggesting a feeling of some sort.)

§ 92 j. Another use of the *of*-phrase is illustrated in these examples: *that rascal of a landlord* (that landlord who is a rascal, that rascally landlord); *my angel of a wife* (my wife who is like an angel, my angelic wife); *her brute of a husband* (her husband who is a brute); *in a devil of a hurry* (in a devilish, i.e. a very great, hurry).

§ 92 k. The genitive is regularly used in measurements of time and distance: *less than a boat's length from the ship; a seven hours' journey; a three hours' walk; a fortnight's holiday; three months' rent; without a moment's rest; a hair's breadth; after three hours' delay.* The *of*-phrase is also used: *a walk of three hours; a delay of several hours.*

Genitives of measure are often replaced by hyphened compounds: *a twenty-minute talk; a five-mile walk; the three-mile row across the lake.*

Note the use in the genitive of nouns that denote a point of time: *today's* (*tomorrow's*) *newspaper; last week's 'Spectator'; tomorrow's meeting of the General Assembly of the United Nations.*

§ 92 l. A noun in the genitive case may be used without the following noun when this denotes a shop, workshop, place of residence or business, etc.

> *She has gone to the butcher's* (*baker's, grocer's*).
> *There's a tobacconist's in the next street.*
> *I'm just going to the carpenter's* (*blacksmith's*).
> *I met her at my uncle's* (i.e. my uncle's house).

The genitive ending is used with plural nouns when there is no likelihood of ambiguity. Thus we can speak of *the teachers' common room*, the room used by all the teachers in a school. *Your parents' wishes* is unlikely to be ambiguous because, for the singular, either *mother* or *father* would be preferred: *your father's wishes.*

§ **92 h.** The genitive is not normally used with nouns that are names of things. The *of*-phrase is used: *the back of his head; the middle of the blackboard; the cap of a milk bottle; the glass door of my bookcase; the front door of the house.*

When the genitive case is used with a noun that does not denote a living thing, it is either an example of literary style or a traditional phrase. Literary or rhetorical style: *London's long and proud history; the ocean's roar; setting out on life's journey.* Journalistic style (especially in headlines for economy of space): *England's team for the next test match.* Traditional phrases: *out of harm's way; to her heart's content; at his wit's* (or *wits'*) *end; only a stone's throw away* (i.e. quite near); *have something at one's fingers' ends.*

When a material thing is thought of as having life the noun is often used in the genitive. This explains the common use of *ship's: the ship's doctor* (*carpenter*).

§ **92 i.** Note the construction in which both the *of*-phrase and a possessive pronoun or noun in the genitive case are used: *a friend of mine; any friends of hers; some friends of my brother's.* (*A friend of my brother* is permissible, but ♠ *a friend of me* is not English.)

My brother's friend refers to someone whose identity is clear from the situation, for example the friend we have been talking about. *A friend of my brother's* is indefinite; it means one of my brother's friends. *Your book* refers to a definite book; *a book of yours* is indefinite. *The Prime Minister's speech* refers to a particular speech, for example, one recently made; *a speech of the Prime Minister's* is indefinite, one of his many speeches.

Possessives are not, in modern English, preceded by numerals or demonstrative adjectives. We cannot say: ♠ *one my old friend;*

to use the noun or gerund attributively: *machines for harvesting*, harvesting machines; *expenses for travelling*, travelling expenses; *paper for writing* (*notes*) *on*, writing paper (note-paper); *money for small* (out-of-pocket) *expenses* (cf. pocket money).

§ 93 d. Many prepositional phrases are formed on the pattern *with*×(adjective×) noun, *with* meaning 'having'. When there is an adjective in the pattern, a compound may replace the phrase: *a girl with curly hair*, a curly-haired girl; *the man with a long nose*, the long-nosed man; *a baby with fat fingers*, a fat-fingered baby; *the boy with* (= wearing) *glasses; the man with a white jacket; a workman with a ladder; the woman with a baby in her arms.*

With in this pattern means 'having', 'who or that has'. *With* cannot always be used. It cannot be used, for example, when *have* means 'experience'.

> *Anyone having* (not ♠ *with*) *difficulty in assembling the machine is advised to consult our engineers.*
>
> Cf. *People with* (= having, getting) *small pensions often find it difficult to make ends meet nowadays.*

§ 93 e. *Without*, meaning 'not having', may also occur in prepositional phrases equivalent to adjectives: *a rumour without foundation* (cf. an unfounded rumour); *a boy without intelligence* (who is unintelligent); *a man without money* (cf. a penniless man); *no rule without exceptions.*

(6) *Relative Clauses as Adjective Equivalents*

§ 94 a. Relative clauses are used as adjective equivalents. They are introduced by the relative pronouns *who, what, which*, and *that*, the relative adjectives *which* and *what*, and the relative adverbs *where, when*, and *why*.

Who has the object form *whom*, rarely used in informal speaking style, and the possessive form *whose*.

§ 94 b. Relative clauses are either defining or non-defining. A defining relative clause is one that is essential to the meaning of

When there is one noun in apposition to another, the first may or may not be in the genitive case.

I bought it at Smith('s), the grocer's.

If the name of the shop, etc., is familiar, the name of the owner, firm, etc., may be used alone in the genitive.

I bought it at Selfridge's (at Harrod's).

The noun following a genitive is often omitted if it denotes a church, college, hospital, or other building associated with a person, especially if the building or institution is well known.

He is vicar of St. Andrew's (i.e. St. Andrew's Church).
He's a Fellow of St. John's (i.e. St. John's College, Cambridge, or Oxford).

(5) *Prepositional Phrases as Modifiers*

§ 93 a. Prepositional phrases are regularly used as adjective equivalents. They are placed after the noun. In many cases the phrase can be replaced by an adjective or a noun that precedes. Examples: *men of honour* (honourable men); *a walk in the evening* (an evening walk); *a swim in the moonlight* (a moonlight swim); *towns by the sea* (seaside towns).

§ 93 b. These phrases are often a shortened form of a relative clause from which the relative pronoun (subject) and the verb (especially a finite of *be*) have been dropped: *the man* (who is) *near the door; the chair* (that is) *by the window; the book* (that is) *on the table; the shop* (that is) *opposite the post office; the girl* (who is) *between Anne and Jane; the boy* (who is) *in the corner; the day* (that is) *after tomorrow; a wind* (that is, that comes) *from the west.*

Note also: *six years of age* (more often *six years old*); *a child of six (years)* (a six-year-old child).

In rhetorical style a prepositional phrase can be used as an adjective equivalent in the predicate.

Be of good cheer! (Be cheerful!)

§ 93 c. Another type of prepositional phrase is that in which *for*, indicating purpose, governs a noun or gerund. It is often possible

§ 94 d. It is important to distinguish relative clauses (adjectival) from noun clauses, dependent questions, and adverbial clauses.

Do you know the man *who wrote this book?* (Relative clause.)
Can you tell me *who wrote this book?* (Dependent question.)
This is the place *where the three roads meet.* (Relative clause.)
His house stands *where three roads meet.* (Adverbial clause of place.)
Sunday is a holiday, *when people do not go to work.* (Non-defining relative clause.)
When I woke up (adverbial clause of time), it was raining hard.

Note that adverbial clauses may (as in the last example) precede the main clause. A relative clause (adjectival) cannot do so.

§ 94 e. In defining clauses *that* can be used as the subject for both persons and things, though *who* is often preferred after *people* and after the pronoun *those*. *Which* is occasionally used as the subject for things, but *that* is much commoner.

The boy who (that) broke the window is called John Grey.
The girl who (that) lives opposite has won a scholarship to the University.
People who live in glass houses should not throw stones. (Rarely *that*.)
Will those who are in favour please hold up their hands? (Rarely *that*.)
He jests at scars that never felt a wound. (The antecedent of *that* is *he*.)
The house that used to stand at this corner was destroyed during the bombing in 1940. (*Which* is possible, but *that* is preferable in a defining clause.)
The windows that were broken by those naughty boys have now been repaired.
Anyone who wants to leave early may do so. (*Who* is preferred to *that* after *anyone* as antecedent.)
It is you who are to blame.
This is one of the few really good books that have been published on this subject.

the sentence. The clause limits or defines the antecedent of the relative pronoun or adverb.

This is the boy who broke the window.

Boy is the antecedent, *who* is the relative pronoun, and the clause *who broke the window* is adjectival.

This is the window that he broke.

Window is the antecedent, *that* is the relative pronoun, and the clause *that he broke* is adjectival.

A non-defining relative clause is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. The sentence will make sense without the clause. The clause gives additional but not essential information. A non-defining relative clause need not be adjectival.

This boy, who lives in the next street, broke a window in the school yesterday.
This window, which was broken by a boy yesterday, will have to be repaired.

§ 94 c. Defining clauses are not marked off by commas in writing and print. Non-defining clauses are placed between commas. They may also be marked off by means of dashes or placed in parentheses.

This boy (who lives in the next street) broke a window in the school yesterday.
This window—which was broken by a boy yesterday—will have to be repaired.

Instead of a non-defining relative clause, separate or co-ordinate sentences are usually preferred in spoken English. Compare:

My brother-in-law, who is a mining engineer, is in Canada at present.
My brother-in-law is a mining engineer. He's in Canada now.

Other differences between defining and non-defining relative clauses are noted below.

That man you lent your dictionary to seldom returns the books he borrows. (More formal: *That man to whom you lent your dictionary.*)

Who is the woman you were talking to when I saw you this morning? (More formal: *the woman to whom you were talking . . .*)

These photographs you've been looking at were taken by my sister. (More formal: *These photographs at which you've been looking . . .*)

Is this the pan you make your omelettes in? (More formal: *the pan in which you make . . .*; more usual: *Is this your omelette pan?*)

After the noun *way* it is usual to omit both the relative *which* and the preposition in such constructions as these:

That's not the way I do it. (= the way in which I do it. Cf. *That's not my way of doing it.*)

It isn't what he says that annoys me but the way he says it. (= the way in which he says it. Cf. *his way of saying it.*)

That's the way the money goes! (Cf. *That's how the money goes!*)

§ 94 h. As the examples given above show, the object of a verb or preposition in a defining relative clause is usually omitted in speaking. We almost always prefer *the book he was reading* to *the book that (which) he was reading*. We almost always prefer *the book I was talking to you about* to *the book about which I was talking to you*.

The relative pronoun may in some cases be omitted when it is the subject of its clause. This is discussed in the next three sections.

§ 94 i. When the verb in the relative clause is *be* and the predicative adjective is one in *-ble*, both the relative pronoun and the verb may be, and usually are, omitted.

The only person (who was) *visible was a policeman.*

The decoration of the house has been done in the best style (that was) *possible.*

The explorers were confronted with gorges (that were) *almost impassable and rivers* (that were) *often unfordable.*

Note that the verb in the clause agrees with the relative pronoun when this is the subject of the clause. In the last example the antecedent of *that* is *books*, plural, not the pronoun *one*, so the plural *have* is needed.

§ 94 **f.** In defining clauses *that* is used as the object of the verb. *Which* is possible for things, but *that* is usually preferred. The object *that*, however, is usually dropped. The use of *whom* for persons is comparatively rare in modern English informal style, and very rare in conversation.

The people (that) you met at my house yesterday are Moslems. (Usually *people you met*; very rarely, *people whom you met.*)
The books I lent you belong to my brother. (Rarely, *the books which I lent you.*)
The lawyer I consulted gave me some useful advice.
The apple trees we planted three years ago are covered with blossom this year.

The omission of the relative pronoun when it is the object of the verb in the clause does not mean that the verb requires a personal pronoun as its object.

This is the book I bought yesterday.

The object of *bought* is the omitted relative pronoun *that*. It is wrong to say: ♠ *This is the book I bought it yesterday.*

This is the man I met yesterday.

The object of *met* is the omitted relative pronoun *that* (or *whom*). It is wrong to say: ♠ *This is the man I met him yesterday.*

§ 94 **g.** In defining clauses with an object that is governed by a preposition, the object, *that*, is usually dropped. The preposition is placed at the end of the clause. It is possible, but not so usual, to use *whom* or *which* with the preposition preceding.

This is the book I was telling you about. (Rarely and more formal: *about which I was telling you.*)

There was a man called to see you this morning. (Instead of: a man *who* called . . .)

It's an ill wind blows nobody good. (Proverbial; *that* omitted.)

Who was that called a few minutes ago? (Instead of: Who was that *who* called . . . or Who was that *that* called . . ., both requiring repetitions.)

The relative pronoun, subject of its clause, is also generally omitted when the clause contains the *there* × *to be* construction.

This is the only one there is. (Cf. This is the only one *that* exists.)

These are the only good books there are on this subject. (Cf. These are the only good books *that* have been written on this subject.)

In both examples *that* is omitted before *there*. *Which* is never used in such clauses.

§ 94 m. *Whose* is used as the possessive form of *who* with reference to persons. It is also used instead of *of which* with reference to things to indicate possession. For things it is often possible, and usually preferable, to avoid the use of *whose* and *of which* by the use of a prepositional phrase that takes the place of the clause.

All those boys whose parents are living abroad will spend the summer holidays with friends.

That's the man whose daughter John is going to marry.

He is a novelist whose reputation has grown fast.

The boy whose work I showed you is the cleverest boy in the school.

The sick man for whose sake you are doing all this work ought to be very grateful to you.

The only words in this paragraph whose spelling may cause trouble are . . .

This example may be rewritten:

The only words in this paragraph the spelling of which (or) *of which the spelling . . .*

§ 94 j. When the verb in the relative clause is in one of the progressive tenses, the relative pronoun (subject) and the finite of *be* may be, and usually are, omitted.

The man (who was) *driving the lorry was drunk.*
The woman (who is) *holding a baby in her arms is waiting to see the doctor.*
The boy (who is) *sitting in the corner is my nephew.*
The girl (who was) *holding up an umbrella was afraid the rain might spoil her new hat.*

If the verb is one that is not normally conjugated in the progressive tenses (see Non-Conclusive Verbs, §§ 58–60), the relative pronoun may be omitted and the finite verb replaced by the present participle.

Anyone wishing (= who wishes) *to leave early may do so.*
Anyone knowing (= who knows) *anything about the accident is asked to communicate with New Scotland Yard.*
Anyone having (= who has) *difficulty in assembling the machine may have the advice of our experts.*

§ 94 k. When the verb in the relative clause is in the passive voice, the relative pronoun and the finite of *be* may be, and usually are, omitted.

The goods (that were) *ordered last month have not arrived yet.*
The speech (that was) *made by the Prime Minister yesterday delighted his supporters.*
Have you seen the film (that is) *described in this newspaper?*

Note also this example, in which only the past participle is retained from the Present Perfect Tense, passive.

He dropped to the ground like a man shot (i.e. like a man who has just been shot).

§ 94 l. The relative pronoun, subject, is also omitted in colloquial style after *there is* (*was*, etc.), *it is* (*was*, etc.), and *who is* (*was*, etc.).

There's somebody at the door wants to see you. (Instead of: somebody *who* wants to see you.)

Why, in such clauses, is usually omitted.

The reason he comes here is . . .

A common alternative construction is:—

His reason for coming here is . . .

When *reason* is the object of the verb in the main clause, it is usually omitted. The *why*-clause then becomes a dependent question.

cf. { *Tell me the reason why you did it.* (Rare.)
Tell me why you did it. (*VP 16.*)

A *to*-infinitive construction is often possible instead of a relative clause with *why*. Compare:

{ *There is every reason why you should be displeased.*
There is every reason for your being displeased.
You have every reason to be displeased.

§ 94 o. In non-defining relative clauses the relative *that* is not used. Non-defining relative clauses are not used in colloquial style and are more formal in effect. *Who* is used for persons. The object form *whom*, rare in spoken English, is regularly used in non-defining relative clauses.

Mr. Green, who gives me piano lessons, has been ill recently.
Mr. Green, whom you met at my home last month, is my music teacher.
Mr. Green, from whom I have piano lessons, is a good teacher.
Mr. Green, whose wife teaches singing, is himself a teacher of the piano.

Note the use of commas to enclose these non-defining clauses. Compare the clauses in this pair of sentences:

{ *Tom's brother, who lives in Birmingham, is an engineer.*
Tom's brother who lives in Birmingham is an engineer.

The first sentence, with a non-defining clause, suggests that Tom has only one brother.

Tom's brother is an engineer. He lives in Birmingham.

The house whose windows are broken is unoccupied.

This example may be rewritten:

The house of which the windows are broken . . . (or) *the windows of which are broken . . .*

It is much better, in this example, to use a prepositional phrase.

The house with the broken windows is unoccupied.

§ **94 n.** The relative adverbs *where* and *when* are often used instead of a preposition and a relative pronoun.

cf. { *the office in which he works*
the office he works in
the office where he works }

cf. { *the restaurant at which I had lunch*
the restaurant I had lunch at
the restaurant where I had lunch }

cf. { *the place at which we stopped to rest*
the place where we stopped to rest }

cf. { *the days on which you don't go to school*
the days when you don't go to school }

cf. { *Sunday is the day on which people go to church.*
Sunday is the day when people go to church. }

cf. { *the years during which he was in the army*
the years when he was in the army }

When, in such clauses, is sometimes replaced by *that.* Sometimes no connecting word is used.

The baby was taken ill the day (that) *we were to have sailed for New York.*
The boys ran off the moment they saw the owner of the orchard.
The sea was, unfortunately, very rough the day we crossed the Channel.

The relative adverb *why* is occasionally used in a similar way. The construction is not so common in colloquial style.

cf. { *The reason for which he comes here is . . .*
The reason why he comes here is . . . }

§ 94 s. The relative adjectives *which* and *what* are not much used in informal style. The examples below are accompanied by more informal alternative constructions.

> *They stayed with me three weeks, during which time they drank all the wine I had.* (. . . and during this time)
> *I was told to go not by train but by bus, which advice I followed.* (. . . and I followed this advice.)
> *They robbed him of what little money he had.* (. . . the small sum of money he had.)

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

§ 95 a. The indefinite pronouns *something, anything, nothing, somebody* (*someone*), *anybody* (*anyone*), and *nobody* (*no one*) are followed by the adjectives that qualify them.

> Show me *something new.* I don't think *anything much* will happen. That's *nothing unusual.* She won't marry until she finds *somebody rich and handsome.* We met *nobody new* at the party.

§ 95 b. These pronouns are also used with a *to*-infinitive as adjunct. The pronoun may be qualified by an adjective.

> I want *something to eat.* Haven't you *anything to do?* Can't you find *something useful to do?* Isn't there *anything more interesting to look at?* Let's find *something to sit on.* I have *nothing to read.* He had *nothing new to say* on the problem. She wants *somebody to talk to.* Haven't you *anyone to help* you with all this work? No, we have *no one to help* us. There's *nothing to be done* about it.

§ 95 c. The *for*×(pro)noun×*to*-infinitive construction is also used with these pronouns.

> Haven't you *anything for me to do?* I must find *somebody for you to play* tennis *with.* There's *nothing suitable for children to read* in this library.

The second sentence, with a defining clause, suggests that Tom has more than one brother.

Tom has a brother living in Birmingham. This brother is an engineer.

§ **94 p.** *Which* is used in non-defining clauses for things. For the possessive form, *of which* is preferred to *whose.*

This fountain pen, which cost me thirty shillings, leaks badly.
This fountain pen, which I bought two months ago, leaks badly.
This fountain pen, for which I paid thirty shillings, was a bad bargain.
This encyclopaedia, of which the second volume (or *the second volume of which*) *is missing, is out of date.*

In non-defining clauses the relative pronoun is not omitted. If the pronoun is governed by a preposition, the preposition usually precedes. It is rarely placed in end position (as in defining relative clauses).

§ **94 q.** Relative adverbs are also used in non-defining clauses.

Stratford-on-Avon, where Shakespeare was born, is visited by thousands of tourists.
Boxing Day, when Christmas boxes used to be given to servants, is the day following Christmas Day.

§ **94 r.** A non-defining relative clause may refer not to a single noun as antecedent but to the whole of what precedes. In such cases the relative pronoun may be equivalent to 'and this', 'and it', etc.

Mr. Green was elected by a large majority, which (= and this) *is what most people had expected.*
He has to work on Sundays, which (= and this) *he does not like.*
Tom won a scholarship to the university, which (= and this fact) *made his headmaster very proud of him.*
The floods destroyed several bridges, which made it impossible to reach the village by road.

PART 4

Adverbials

§ 97. Patterns for adverbials are not in all cases set out here in Tables with complete sentences in the way that patterns for verbs have been set out. Tables are given to illustrate some minor patterns. These are followed by examples where these are useful.

In addition to such simple adverbs as *now*, *often*, *well*, and *much*, there are thousands of adverb phrases. Examples of these are: *now and again; twice a week; two months ago; since two o'clock*. The term ADVERBIAL is used here to comprise both simple adverbs and adverb phrases. This term may also be used for adverbial clauses (e.g. *when I was a boy*).

Adverbs may be classified according to their function (e.g. adverbials of time, frequency, manner) and according to their position in the sentence.

CLASSIFICATION BY POSITION

Front-Position Adverbials (*FPA*)

§ 98 a. Only the interrogative adverbs (*how*, *when*, *where*, *why*) are confined to this position. Other adverbials may occupy front position for emphasis or contrast. Examples are given in the sections on mid-position and end-position adverbs.

See also § 106 b, c for examples of adverbial particles with front position and § 104 for examples of adverbs modified by *how* in front position. (E.g. *How well she sings!*)

Some front-position adverbs may modify the whole sentence. *Yes*, *no*, and *still* (meaning 'all the same') are examples.

§ 95 **d.** Another common pattern for these pronouns is illustrated in this table.

<table>
<tr><td>We know
He told me</td><td>something
nothing</td><td rowspan="2">about</td><td rowspan="2">it

them

(etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Do you know
Can you tell me</td><td>anything</td></tr>
</table>

§ 95 **e.** These pronouns are used with the adverb *else: something else* (some other thing); *nothing else* (no other thing, nothing more); *anybody else* (any other person or persons).

ORDER FOR PLACING VARIOUS ADJECTIVES

§ **96.** When several adjectives and adjective equivalents (nouns or gerunds) are used together before a noun, the question of order arises. There are no definite rules. The Table below gives some guidance. For the order of various determinatives (e.g. for *all* and *both*), see § 86 and Tables Nos. 70 to 77.

Table No. 78

	Determinatives, etc.	*Quality, etc.*	*Size, Length, Shape, etc.*	*Colour*	*Noun or Gerund*	*Noun*
1	a very	valuable, old			gold	watch
2	a		long	brown	leather	belt
3	a		high	red	brick	wall
4	quite an	attractive	triangular	green	Cape-Colony	stamp
5	those	smart		brown	snakeskin	shoes
6	some	sour		green	eating	apples
7	several		large	red	pickling	cabbages
8	her		small, round	pink		face
9	a	useful	oblong		tin	box
10	a	pretty		purple	silk	dress

NOTE

Note that when a noun is modified by another noun, or by a gerund, the modifying word immediately precedes, and that if there is an adjective that denotes colour, this precedes the modifying noun or gerund. Adjectives that denote a quality usually precede those that denote size, length, shape, etc.

Table No. 79

1	this	morning (afternoon, evening) week (month, term, year, etc.) January (February, etc.) spring (summer, etc.)
2	next last	Sunday (Monday, etc.) week (month, term, year, etc.) January (February, etc.) spring (summer, etc.)
3	(the) next the following	day (morning, afternoon, evening, night) week (month, year, etc.) January (February, etc.) spring (summer, etc.)
4	tomorrow last	evening night
5	tomorrow yesterday	morning (afternoon, evening)
6	the day	after tomorrow before yesterday
7	the week (month, year, etc.)	after next before last
8	one	morning (afternoon, evening, night) Monday (Tuesday, etc.) morning (afternoon, evening, night) day (morning, etc.) in May (June, etc.) June (spring, etc.) morning (afternoon, etc.)
9	today (this day) tomorrow yesterday	week (fortnight)

Mid-Position Adverbials (MPA)

§ **98 b.** The term MID-POSITION ADVERBIAL is used for those adverbials that are normally placed with the verb. Many of these adverbials may occupy other positions in the sentence. Notes on alternative positions are given below.

When an adverbial has mid position, it is placed before ordinary finite verbs. E.g. He *often goes* there. They *still want* to go. I *never play* tennis.

This is called the PRE-FINITE position.

An adverbial with mid position is placed after unstressed finites of *be*, *have*, *do*, and other auxiliary and modal verbs. (See §§ 2–10.) E.g. We *have often* been there. He *is always* busy. She *is still* waiting. He *can seldom* find time for reading.

This is called the POST-FINITE position.

End-position Adverbials (EPA)

§ **98 c.** The term END-POSITION ADVERBIAL is used for those adverbials that are placed after the verb, and after the indirect and direct objects when these are present. There may be two or more end-position adverbials in a sentence. Some guidance (not rules) on the order in which such adverbials may be placed is given below (§ 105). E.g. *She sings well. She is singing well this evening. She sang that song well. He works badly. He has done that work badly. Anne speaks French well.*

CLASSIFICATION BY FUNCTION

Adverbials of Time

§ **99 a.** The term ADVERBIAL OF TIME is restricted here to those adverbials that answer the question 'When?' E.g. *yesterday; then; at two o'clock; three days ago.*

Some of the adverb phrases begin with a preposition. E.g. *on Sunday; in summer; at six o'clock.* Others have no preposition. E.g. *last night; two days ago; tomorrow evening.*

The tables below illustrate the most often used adverbials of time.

Table No. 81

§ 99 c. This substitution table illustrates some of the thousands of possible adverbials of time that begin with a preposition.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">1</td><td rowspan="2">on
before
after
by</td><td>Sunday (Monday, etc.)</td><td colspan="2">next
last
morning
afternoon
evening
night</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Sunday (Monday, etc.) week (fortnight)
the first (second, etc.) Sunday (Monday, etc.) in May (June, etc.)
the first (second, etc.) of May (June, etc.)
May (June, etc.) the first (second, etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>in
during</td><td colspan="3">May (June, etc.)
(the) spring (summer, etc.)
the morning (afternoon, evening, day, night)
(the year) 500 B.C., 1066, 1914, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>at
before
after
by</td><td colspan="3">six o'clock (half past two, etc.)
noon (midday, midnight)
dawn (sunrise, sunset)
Easter, Christmas, the New Year
breakfast (supper, etc.) time</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">4</td><td rowspan="3">in</td><td colspan="3">a few minutes (hours, days, etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">an hour's
half (quarter of) an hour's</td><td rowspan="2">time</td></tr>
<tr><td>a few (several)
two (three, etc.)
two or three (four or five)</td><td>hours'
days'
weeks'
(etc.)</td></tr>
</table>

1. Note that we say *this morning, this afternoon,* and *this evening,* but *tonight* instead of *this night.*

2. *Next Sunday,* etc., always future time. Note that instead of *next day* (see 3, below), we say *tomorrow*; instead of *next morning,* we say *tomorrow morning*; instead of ♠ *last day,* we say *yesterday*; instead of ♠ *last afternoon,* we say *yesterday afternoon.*

3. In these combinations the reference is to the day, week, etc., that followed or that will follow. The reference is to the day, etc., after the day, etc., referred to, past or future.

4 & 5. Note that *tomorrow* and *yesterday* combine with *morning, afternoon,* and *evening,* and that *tomorrow* combines with *night.* But *last night* is preferred to *yesterday night.*

8. No preposition is needed with adverbials in this group: *one morning in May; one hot July afternoon; one wet evening in November.* If, however, the indefinite article is substituted for *one,* the preposition *on* is needed: *on a sunny June morning; on a frosty morning in January.*

9. The adverbials *today* (*this day*) *week* may point to either past or future time, as shown by the verb tense or the context.

> *This day week* (= a week ago) *we were in Wales.*
> *I shall be seeing him today week* (= in a week's time).

Table No. 80

§ **99 b.** This substitution table illustrates adverbials of time in which *ago* occurs. No preposition is needed. The adverbials point to a period of time measured back from the present. Compare the adverbials of duration set out in Table No. 87.

<table>
<tr><td>1</td><td colspan="2">(not) long
a short (long, considerable) time (while)
a moment (minute, hour, week, month, etc.)</td><td rowspan="2">ago</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>a few
several
(not) many
two or three (etc.)</td><td>minutes
hours
days
weeks (etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>a week (fortnight, month, etc.)
two (three, a few, several, etc.)
weeks (months, etc.)</td><td>ago</td><td>(today)
yesterday
last Monday</td></tr>
</table>

most commonly used are: *always, regularly, usually, generally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, (ever), never.* The adverb *ever* is not used in purely affirmative sentences. It is used in questions, and in clauses expressing conditions, doubt, or ignorance. *Ever* is used in affirmative sentences with *hardly* or *scarcely* meaning 'very seldom'.

Table No. 82

§ 100 c. This table illustrates adverbs of frequency, Group 1, as mid-position adverbs in the pre-finite position. They have the pre-finite position when the finite verb is not one of the anomalous finites.

	Subject	*A. of F. (MPA)*	*Verb, etc.*
1	The sun	always	rises in the east.
2	Mr. Black	occasionally	goes to the cinema.
3	His wife	never	goes.
4	My brother	rarely	writes to me.
5	We	generally	have breakfast at seven.
6	Tom	usually	cycles to school.
7	Harry	always	goes to school by bus.
8	He	sometimes	goes to bed very late.
9	Mrs. Green	hardly ever	plays tennis now.
10	I wonder whether you	ever	met my brother while you were in Finland.

NOTES

The verb *have* in No. 5 is the full verb (here meaning 'take' or 'eat'), not the anomalous finite.

These adverbs may have front or end position for emphasis or contrast.

Sometimes he goes to school by bus and sometimes he cycles to school.

X: *'Do you generally go for a walk on Sunday mornings?'*
Y: *'No, usually I go to church.'*

NOTE

Specimen adverbials from this table are: *on Sunday; on Monday morning; by the first of May; in the morning; on the morning of June the first; at dawn; after sunset; in a few hours; in three hours' time; in two or three years' time.*

Positions of Adverbials of Time

§ 99 d. The adverbials of time set out in Tables 79 to 81 normally have end position. They may have front position for emphasis or contrast.

End position:

I wrote to her last week.
He left a few months ago.
Where are you likely to be next month?
We shall leave on Sunday morning.

Front position:

Last summer we went to Wales; this summer we're going to Scotland.
One cold December morning a man was walking along the Dover road.

End position and front position:

We left London at seven o'clock. At noon our aircraft landed at Rome airport.

Adverbials of Frequency

§ 100 a. The term ADVERBIAL OF FREQUENCY is used here for those adverbials that answer the question 'How often?' Examples are: *always, often, every day, twice a week.*

These adverbials can be placed in two groups. Group 1 includes such adverbs as *always* and *often.* Group 2 is made up of such adverb phrases as *now and again, once a week, every other day, every few weeks.*

§ 100 b. Adverbials of Frequency, Group 1, may occupy front, mid, or end position, though the mid position is most usual. The

When the anomalous finite is stressed, the adverbial precedes it.

Cf. *They can always* [kənˈo:lwəz] *find time for amusements.*
They always can [ˈo:lwəzˈkan] *find time for amusements.*

Cf. *I'm usually* [aimˈju:ʒuəli] *here on Mondays.*
I usually am [ju:ʒuəliˈam] *here on Mondays.*

Cf. *She has never* [ʃi:zˈnevə] *refused to help.*
She never has [ʃinevəˈhaz] *refused to help.*

In short answers, comments, and retorts the anomalous finite is stressed. So the adverb of frequency precedes the finite.

X: '*Why don't you stop beating your wife?*'
Y: '*But I never have beaten her!*' (stressed *have*).
Cf. '*I have never beaten anybody.*' (unstressed *have*).

When *have* is a full verb (see § 4 d), not an auxiliary, mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position.

Cf. *We generally have* (full verb) *coffee for breakfast.*
We have (aux. verb) *always bought the best coffee.*

Mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position when used with *have to* indicating obligation. (See § 4 f, § 13 g.)

Cf. *I often have to cook my own breakfast.*
I have often cooked my own breakfast.

With *used to* mid-position adverbs may have either pre-finite or post-finite position.

Cf. *You always used to help me.*
You used always to help me.

Cf. *He often used to sit outside the door of his house.*
He used often to sit outside the door of his house.

When *need* is followed by a direct object or a *to*-infinitive, mid-position adverbs have pre-finite position.

Some of the pupils often need help.
Others seldom need to come to me for help.

When *need* is followed by a bare infinitive, mid-position adverbs have post-finite position.

You needn't always bang the door when you go out, need you?
You need never invite me to go out with you again!

When *dare* is followed by a *to*-infinitive, mid-position adverbs have post-finite position.

He would never dare to be so rude to his father.

Usually here has front position for emphasis.
Often, when modified by *quite* or *very*, frequently takes end position.

Cf. { *I often meet Tom on his way to school.*
I met Mr. White quite often when I was in London.
Very often the weather was too bad for us to go out.
Quite often he prefers to stay at home instead of going to the cinema.

When *seldom, rarely,* or *never* has front position for emphasis, there is inversion of the subject and the finite verb (i.e. the interrogative form is used).

Cf. { *We seldom hear such fine singing from school choirs.*
Seldom do we hear such fine singing from school choirs.

Table No. 83

§ 100 d. This table illustrates adverbs of frequency, Group 1, as mid-position adverbs in the post-finite position. The finite verb is one of the anomalous finites.

	Subject × *A.F.* (× not)	*A. of F.* (*MPA*)	
1	I am	always	at home on Sundays.
2	I can	hardly ever	understand what that man says.
3	Do you	often	play tennis?
4	They don't	often	go to bed late.
5	You don't	usually	arrive late, do you?
6	You should	always	try to be punctual.
7	She will	occasionally	offer to help.
8	She has	never	had a holiday.
9	We can	generally	get there in time.
10	Will he	ever	learn anything useful?
11	I wonder whether they will	ever	improve.
12	I have	rarely	seen better work.
13	They can	seldom	find time for reading.
14	You must	never	do that again.

Adverbials of Duration

§ **102.** The term ADVERBIAL OF DURATION is used for those adverbials that answer the question '(for)-how long?'

Table No. 87

This is a substitution table showing possible adverbials of duration. There are four groups: (1) with *for* (often omitted); (2) with *from . . . to . . .*; (3) with *until, till,* or *up to*; (4) with *since.*

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">(for)</td><td colspan="3">some time; a long (short) time
half an hour; a quarter of an hour
a week; a month; a year, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">several
a few
two or three
many
the next (last) few (three, etc.)
over (under) three
more (less) than three</td><td>minutes
hours
days
weeks
months
years
(etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">from</td><td>morning</td><td rowspan="6">to
till
until</td><td>night</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sunday</td><td>Friday</td></tr>
<tr><td>May</td><td>August</td></tr>
<tr><td>two o'clock</td><td>six o'clock</td></tr>
<tr><td>1901</td><td>1937</td></tr>
<tr><td>(etc.)</td><td>(etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>until
till
up to</td><td colspan="3">tomorrow (morning, etc.)
June the first
1939</td></tr>
<tr><td>since</td><td colspan="3">five o'clock
breakfast
Sunday
the first of May
1915</td></tr>
</table>

Table No. 86

§ **101 c.** This table illustrates these adverbs in the post-finite position. Compare the adverbs of frequency, Table No. 83, § 100 d.

	Subject	*A.F.* (× not)	*MPA*	*Non-Finite Verb, etc.*
1	I	have	almost	finished.
2	The postman	has	already	been.
3	They	have	also	visited Milan.
4	They	didn't	even	try to help!
5	I	need	hardly	say that he did well.
6	They	had	just	finished breakfast.
7	She	has (is)	quite	recovered from her illness.
8	We	shall	soon	be there.
9	We	are	still	waiting.
10	They	would	rather	stay at home.

NOTES

The examples below illustrate the pre-finite and post-finite positions of some of these adverbs.

Cf. { *We already know the answer.*
We have already found the answer.

Cf. { *She even offered to do the work without payment.*
She might even offer to do the work without payment.

Cf. { *I merely wanted to borrow a pencil.*
I was merely wondering whether you could lend me a pencil.

Already (example No. 2) may have end position.
The postman has been already.

Already frequently has end position when it replaces *yet* to indicate surprise.

Has the postman been already?
You haven't had breakfast already, have you?

Soon may have front or end position as well as mid position.

Adverbs of this group have pre-finite position if the anomalous finite is stressed. It is stressed in short answers and retorts.

X: *'He will certainly* (unstressed *will*) *be glad to know that his father is safe.'*
Y: *'He certainly will.'* (stressed *will*)

Adverbials of Duration

§ **102.** The term ADVERBIAL OF DURATION is used for those adverbials that answer the question '(for) how long?'

Table No. 87

This is a substitution table showing possible adverbials of duration. There are four groups: (1) with *for* (often omitted); (2) with *from . . . to . . .*; (3) with *until*, *till*, or *up to*; (4) with *since*.

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">(for)</td><td colspan="3">some time; a long (short) time
half an hour; a quarter of an hour
a week; a month; a year, etc.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">several
a few
two or three
many
the next (last) few (three, etc.)
over (under) three
more (less) than three</td><td>minutes
hours
days
weeks
months
years
(etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>from</td><td>morning
Sunday
May
two o'clock
1901
(etc.)</td><td>to
till
until</td><td>night
Friday
August
six o'clock
1937
(etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>until
till
up to</td><td colspan="3">tomorrow (morning, etc.)
June the first
1939</td></tr>
<tr><td>since</td><td colspan="3">five o'clock
breakfast
Sunday
the first of May
1915</td></tr>
</table>

Adverbials of duration usually have end position. They may have front position (seldom mid position) for emphasis or contrast.

Has he been ill long? Yes, he has been ill (for) a considerable time (since the end of May).
He was away from school (for) four or five weeks.
We were kept waiting for over (for more than) half an hour.

Front position for emphasis or contrast:

From nine o'clock until noon he was teaching English and since two o'clock he has been teaching French.
For the last few days we've had cold, wet weather. (*For* is usually retained when the adverbial has front position.)

Adverbials of Place and Direction

§ **103.** These are so numerous, and can be formed so freely (e.g. in the pattern *preposition* × *noun*, as *in the post office, over the hill, near the church, into the lake*), that they are not shown in tables. They normally have end position.

Put the books on the table.
The map was hung on the wall.
Ring me up at my office.
He jumped into the water.

For the placing of these adverbials when there are other end-position adverbials, see Tables Nos. 88 and 89.

Adverbials of Degree and Manner

§ **104.** The positions of adverbials of degree and manner cannot be shown simply in tables. The following notes may be helpful. See also the article on 'Adjectives and Adverbs identical in Form' (§ 107–8).

The adverbs *well, badly, hard,* and many other adverbs indicating manner have end position. They are not placed between a verb and its object.

With intransitive verbs:

She sings beautifully. He is working well (hard). He's playing badly today.

With transitive verbs:

He has done the work well (badly). She plays tennis beautifully. You speak English perfectly. Hit the ball hard.

In exclamatory sentences with *how* the adverb is placed with *how*, not at the end.

How well (badly) he has done the work! How well she plays tennis! How beautifully she sings! How hard you work!

The adverb *much* normally has end position.

He doesn't speak much. Does she play tennis much (= often)? *Do you like the cinema much? He doesn't like wine very much.*

(Note that the sentence 'He does not like very much wine', grammatically correct, means 'He does not like a large quantity of wine'.)

Much is also used in the mid position when the verb is negative, usually when the object is something non-material.

I don't much like the idea.

Adverbs of manner in *-ly*, used with transitive verbs, occupy either the mid position or the end position. (*Badly* never has mid position.)

{*He quickly picked up the ball.*
{*He picked up the ball quickly.*
{*I deeply regret the mistake.*
{*I regret the mistake deeply.*
{*He frankly admitted his error.*
{*He admitted his error frankly.*
{*I had completely forgotten it.*
{*I had forgotten it completely.*

If such sentences are in the passive voice, adverbs in *-ly* go with the past participle, either before or after.

{ *The work had been carefully done.*
{ *The work had been done carefully.*

With verb phrases such as *go out*, *come in*, adverbs of manner in *-ly* occupy either end position or mid position.

He went out (came in) quietly.
He quietly went out (came in).

Order of Two or More Adverbials

§ **105**. When two or more adverbials, of the same class or of different classes, are to be used in a sentence, the order in which they are to be placed has to be decided.

When there are two adverbials of time, the smaller unit is usually, but not invariably, placed first.

I will meet you at three o'clock tomorrow.
We arrived at five o'clock yesterday afternoon.
I saw the film on Tuesday evening last week.

If, however, the larger unit is considered to be more important, or if the smaller unit is an afterthought, this order may be reversed.

We arrived yesterday afternoon, about five o'clock.

When there are two adverbials of place, the smaller unit is usually, but not always, placed first. The order is often a matter of style and balance.

He lives in a small village in Kent.
We spent the holidays in a cottage in the mountains.
Cf. *We spent the holidays in the mountains, in a small cottage we rented from a friend.*

When a sentence includes both an adverbial of place or direction and an adverbial of time, the adverbial of time usually comes last.

Table No. 88

This table illustrates such combinations.

		A. of P. or D.	*A. of T.*
1	We went for a swim	in the lake	before breakfast.
2	I will be	there	early.
3	We are going	to Holland	next month.
4	They landed	at Dover	the next morning.
5	I expect to be	back home	by Tuesday.
6	Meet me	outside the post office	at five o'clock on Monday.
7	They went	to the cinema	on Saturday evening.
8	Please return the books	to the library	before Monday.
9	Can you get	here	by evening?

Variations in this order are possible. The adverbial of time may have front position. The adverbial of place or direction is not normally in front position.

Last month we went to Scotland; next month we are going to Wales. (A. of T. in front position for contrast.)

On Monday they sailed from Southampton; on Saturday they landed in New York.

Compare these two sentences:

Please return all books to the library before Friday. (Normal word order.)

Please return before Monday all books that you have borrowed from the library. (Here, exceptionally, the adverbial of time comes between the verb and its object. If the adverb of time were placed at the end, it might be taken as modifying *borrowed* instead of *return*.)

Adverbials of place and direction usually precede adverbials of frequency. Adverbials of frequency usually precede adverbials of time.

Table No. 89

This table illustrates such combinations.

		A. of P. or D.	*A. of F.*	*A. of T.*
1	I have been	to London	several times	this year.
2	He walked	round the park	twice	before supper.
3	He gave lectures	at the training college	three days a week	last term.
4	He saw that film	at the Regal Cinema	twice	last week.
5	He goes	to Africa	every other year.	

NOTES

Variations in this order are possible, chiefly by placing the adverbial of time in front position for emphasis or contrast.

Before supper he walked round the park twice.
Last term he gave lectures at the training college three days a week; this term he is lecturing there five days a week.

ADVERBIAL PARTICLES

§ 106 a. The term ADVERBIAL PARTICLE (abbreviated to *A.P.* in tables) is used for a group of adverbs with characteristics of their own. The most important are: *up*, *down*, *in*, *out*, *on*, *off*, *away*, *back*.

These particles are combined with verbs to form combinations with meanings that are sometimes regular and obvious (as in *take your hat off*, *put your hat on*) and sometimes irregular (as in *put off a meeting*, i.e. postpone it).

Many of these particles are used as prepositions. In the sentence *I ran down the hill*, *down* is a preposition. In the sentence *The clock has run down*, *down* is an adverb. The combination *run down* here means 'stop'. *The clock has run down*, i.e. 'stopped', because it needs to be *wound up*. In other contexts *run down* may mean 'become exhausted'. *The battery has run down.* Transitively *run down* may mean 'hit and knock down', as in *Their car ran down a pedestrian.*

There are many hundreds of such verb-adverb combinations. The meaning is sometimes clear from the meanings of the two words taken separately. Often, however, the meaning of the com-

bination must be learnt independently of the separate words, as in *The gun went off* (i.e. fired) *by accident.*

The positions of these adverbial particles in *VP 10* is illustrated in Tables 20 and 21 (§ 21). These particles also occur in *VP 23*. See Table No. 57 (§ 34 a). As this table shows, the particle usually has end position.

> *Everyone stood up. They went out. We turned back.*

§ 106 b. These particles may have front position in exclamatory sentences. There are two patterns.

If the subject of the sentence is a personal pronoun, the order is: *A.P.* × personal pronoun × verb.

> *Off they went!* (= They went off.)
> *Away it flew!* (= It flew away.)
> *Out it comes!* (= It comes out.)

If the subject of the sentence is a noun, or a pronoun that is not a personal pronoun, the order is: *AP* × verb × subject.

> *Off went John!* (= John went off.)
> *Away flew my hat!* (= My hat flew away.)
> *In came the others!* (= The others came in.)

Compare the patterns for exclamatory *here* and *there*, shown in Table No. 59, § 34 c.

§ 106 c. These particles are used in front position to form a lively (informal) imperative. The subject *you* is needed.

> *In you go!* (= Go in, please.)
> *Out you come!* (= Come out!)

§ 106 d. The particles are also used in verbless exclamations. The pattern is: *A.P.* × *with* × (pro)noun.

> *Out with it!* (i.e. Bring it out, tell us the news, the secret, etc., according to context.)
> *Down with the grammarians!* (= Let us suppress them.)
> *Away with them!* (= Take them away!)
> *Off with their heads!* (= Cut their heads off.)

§ **107 a.** When we speak of 'a fast train', we use *fast* as an adjective. When we say, 'The train was travelling fast', we use *fast* as an adverb.

There are numerous adjectives, mostly short and familiar words, that can be used, without change of form, as adverbs. Some, like *fast*, have only one form. Others, for example *wrong*, can be used as adverbs without change of form but are also used with the suffix *-ly*. *Wrong* is an adjective in 'a wrong answer'. It is an adverb in 'to guess wrong'. But before a past participle it is necessary to use *wrongly*, as in 'We were wrongly informed'.

The following sections deal with adjectives and adverbs that are identical in form, and with the differences in the use of adverbs that sometimes have, and sometimes have not, the suffix *-ly* (e.g. the difference between *wrong*, adv. and *wrongly*, adv.). These differences are sometimes differences of meaning and sometimes differences of usage.

§ **107 b.** There is a small group of adjectives formed by adding *-ly* to nouns that denote a period of time. They are: *hourly*, *daily*, *weekly*, *fortnightly*, *monthly*, *quarterly*, *yearly*. To these may be added: *bi-weekly*, *bi-monthly*, etc. These adjectives are also used as adverbs.

> *There is an hourly service of trains to London.* (adj.)
> *The buses run hourly.* (adv.)
> *We advertised for a house in several weekly periodicals.* (adj.)
> *This periodical is published weekly.* (adv.)

§ **107 c.** Note that when the suffix *-ly* is added to nouns such as *man*, *king*, *scholar* (meaning 'having the nature or qualities of'), the resulting word is always an adjective. It cannot be used as an adverb.

The chief words in this class are *beastly*, *brotherly*, *cowardly*, (*un*)*earthly*, *fatherly*, (*un*)*friendly*, *gentlemanly*, *heavenly*, *kingly*, *leisurely*, *lively* (from *life*+*-ly*), *lovely*, *masterly*, *motherly*, *princely*, *queenly*, (*un*)*scholarly*, *sisterly*, (*un*)*soldierly*, *womanly*.

If we wish to express the idea denoted by these adjectives adverbially, a phrase such as 'in a leisurely manner' or 'in a cowardly fashion' can be used.

Cf. { *He is a cowardly fellow.*
He behaved in a cowardly fashion (manner).

§ **107 d.** The words *early*, *fast*, *half*, *long*, and *straight* are used both as adjectives and adverbs.

Cf. { *We had an early breakfast.* (adj.)
We had breakfast early. (adv.)

Cf. { *We went by a fast train.* (adj.)
Don't speak so fast. (adv.)

Cf. { *The post is fast in the ground.* (adj.)
The paper was stuck fast to the desk. (adv.)
He was fast asleep. (adv.)

Cf. { *We waited half the afternoon.* (adj.)
This is not half good enough. (adv.)

Cf. { *We've had a long wait.* (adj.)
Have you been waiting long? (adv.)

Cf. { *I want a straight answer to my question.* (adj.)
Tell me straight what you think. (adv.)
He has come straight from London. (adv.)

§ **107 e.** The words *clean*, *clear*, *close*, *dead*, *direct*, *easy*, *fair*, *firm*, *high*, *large*, *loud*, *mighty*, *pretty*, *quick*, *right*, *sharp*, *slow*, *soft*, *sound*, *sure*, *tight*, and *wide* are used as adjectives. They are also used as adverbs, sometimes with and sometimes without the suffix *-ly*. The use of these words without *-ly* is a matter of usage and cannot be explained by giving rules. 'Guess wrong' is commoner and more idiomatic than 'guess wrongly', but before a past participle *wrongly* is always needed, as in 'I was wrongly informed'.

In some cases it may be questioned whether a word is used as an adverb or as a predicative adjective. In the phrase 'to hold one's head high', *high* may be looked upon as an adjective (see *VP* 7 and cf. 'Open your mouth wide') or as an adverb. ▲ 'Hold one's head highly' is impossible.

§ **108.** This section illustrates these words, with and without the suffix *-ly*.

Clean is used as an adverb meaning 'completely' or 'thoroughly': *He was clean bowled in the first over. I clean forgot to ask him about it. The prisoner got clean away. He threw the ball clean over the roof.*

Clean also occurs in compounds: *clean-shaven; clean-cut.*

The adverb *cleanly* ['kli:nli] is rare. It should not be confused with the adjective *cleanly* ['klenli].

Clear is used as an adverb with the meaning 'completely' and can often be substituted for *clean: The bullet went clear through the door.*

It also means 'apart', 'not touching': *Stand* (or *keep*) *clear of the gates of the lift.*

Clearly is needed in the post-verbal position and, of course, with adjectives: *He is clearly wrong* (*clearly in the wrong*). *Can you see clearly from here? You must clearly understand that . . . It must be clearly understood that . . .*

Clear is sometimes used in the post-verbal position where *clearly* is also possible: *The moon shone clear*(*ly*). *He spoke loud*(*ly*) *and clear*(*ly*).

The use of an adverb of degree makes *clearly* preferable to *clear: He speaks very* (*quite*) *clearly.* (Cf. *He spoke loud and clear.*)

When *close* means 'near', it is often used as an adverb: *Stay close to me. He was following close behind. This success brings us closer to final victory. The closer* (formal style *more closely*) *we look into the question, the greater the difficulties appear.*

When *close* has other meanings, the adverb in *-ly* is needed *The prisoners were closely* (= strictly) *guarded. Watch what I do closely* (= carefully). *He sent me a letter of two closely written pages* (i.e. with the words and lines close together).

Dead is used adverbially meaning 'completely' or 'absolutely': *dead level; dead straight; going dead slow* (as slowly as possible, almost stopped); *dead drunk; dead beat* (tired out, exhausted). *The wind was dead against us* (was blowing directly opposite to our course).

Deadly is occasionally used meaning 'extremely', as in *deadly*

dull. It is more often used as an adjective (similar to those listed in § 107 c above): *deadly poison; deadly hatred; the seven deadly sins.*

Direct is an adverb meaning 'straight': *We went direct to the station. This train goes direct to London. I shall communicate with you direct* (i.e. not through a third party, e.g. not through my solicitors).

Compare the use of *directly*: *We are not directly affected by the new taxes. He is directly descended from the eighteenth century novelist Cox.*

Note also the use of *directly* meaning 'at once', 'immediately': *He left directly after breakfast.*

Directly may also mean 'after a short time': *I'll be with you directly.*

Easy is used adverbially in a few phrases only: *Take it easy. Stand easy. Go easy* (*with the butter*) (i.e. use it in moderation). *Easier said than done.*

Except in these colloquial usages, *easily* is used.

> *He is not easily satisfied.*
> *You can easily imagine my surprise.*
> *He won the race easily* (= with ease).

Fair is used adverbially in: *play fair; hit fair; fight fair; bid fair to* (= seem likely to).

Otherwise *fairly* is used: *treat him fairly; act fairly by all men. Fairly* is used with adjectives and adverbs meaning 'moderately': *fairly well; fairly soon; fairly good; fairly certain.*

Firm is used adverbially in: *stand firm; hold firm to something.*

Otherwise *firmly* is used: *I firmly believe that . . . Fix the post firmly in the ground. I had to speak firmly to him.*

High is used adverbially in such phrases as: *aim high; fix one's hopes high; hold one's head high; play high* (i.e. gamble for high stakes); *search high and low. The sea was running high. Passions were running high.*

Otherwise *highly* is used: *highly amusing; highly paid; a highly placed official; a highly cultivated woman; speak highly of someone; esteem someone highly.*

Large is used after *loom* and *bulk*: *to loom (bulk) large.*

Largely is used meaning 'to a great extent': *This was largely due to...*

Loud is adverbial in *talk loud*: *Don't talk so loud. Who laughed loudest?*

Cf. *He called loudly for help. She complained loudly of having been kept waiting.*

Mighty is used colloquially (chiefly U.S.A.) as an adverb in: *mighty easy (pleasant). It was mighty kind of you.*

The adverb *mightily* is rare.

When *pretty* is used adverbially it means 'fairly' or 'moderately': *pretty difficult; feeling pretty well; pretty much* (= almost) *alike; pretty nearly the same.*

Prettily means 'in a pretty or pleasing manner': *She speaks (sings, is dressed) prettily. She was prettily dressed.*

Quick is used colloquially as an adverb after common verbs of movement: *Come quick. I ran as quick as I could.*

In other cases *quickly* is used: *Retribution quickly followed. The term passed quickly.*

Right is very commonly used adverbially: *It serves you right. You did right to apologize.* (Note, however, *You acted rightly.*) *He guessed (answered) right. Nothing goes right with me.*

Rightly, meaning 'correctly', is always needed in the pre-verbal position: *He rightly guessed that . . . I cannot rightly recollect whether . . . Rightly or wrongly, they decided that the boy must be punished.*

Sharp is used adverbially to mean 'punctually': *at six o'clock sharp.* It is also used adverbially in: *look sharp* (= be quick); *sing sharp* (= above the true pitch); *turn sharp left.* (Cf. *turn sharply to the left.*)

Sharply is used in: *answer sharply; speak sharply to someone; a sharply pointed pencil; turn sharply to the left.*

Slow is used as an adverb only in: *Go slow* (as a command). *The workers decided to go slow* (i.e. to work slowly, as a form of protest or to get satisfaction for demands, etc.).

Otherwise *slowly* is usual: *How slowly the time passes! Drive slowly round the bend.*

Soft is sometimes used adverbially in the comparative: *Play softer.* Otherwise *softly* is used: *Tread softly so as not to wake the baby.*

Sound is adverbial in: *sound asleep.* Otherwise *soundly* is used: *argue soundly; thrash somebody soundly.*

Sure is adverbial in *sure enough*; (colloq.) *as sure as my name is Tom.* In other cases *surely* is used: *working slowly but surely.*

Tight is used adverbially in a few phrases: *hold it tight; keep your mouth tight shut; squeeze it tight; screw the nuts up tight; a coat made to fit tight round the waist. Tightly* is always used to precede a past participle: *We were tightly packed in the bus.* (Cf. *We were packed tight.*) *The children sat with their hands tightly clasped.*

Wide is often adverbial: *Open your mouth wide. The window was wide open. He was wide awake. We searched far and wide. It fell wide of the mark. Their views are still wide apart. Widely* is used with past participles: *widely scattered; widely separated; widely known. He has travelled widely* (i.e. in many different parts).

The adverbs *hard* and *hardly*, *just* and *justly*, *late* and *lately*, *most* and *mostly*, differ from the pairs already treated. The members of these pairs are widely different in meaning. The difference between *speak louder* and *speak more loudly* is not a difference of meaning; *speak louder* is more colloquial and idiomatic. The difference between the members of the pairs given above is not a difference of usage but a difference of meaning.

The adverb *hard* is illustrated in these examples: *try hard; work hard; look hard at somebody; freezing hard; hard at work; be hard put to it* (be in difficulties); *hard* (close) *by; running as hard as he could.*

The most usual meaning of *hardly* is 'scarcely': *hardly long enough* (not quite long enough); *hardly ever* (very seldom). *I hardly know her. You'd hardly believe it.*

Compare these sentences:

He works hard. (Cf. He is a hard worker.)
He hardly does anything nowadays. (He does very little.)
He was hard hit by the financial crisis (i.e. he was hit hard, he suffered severe losses).

He was hardly hit by the financial crisis (i.e. it had hardly any, scarcely any, effect on him, so that he did not suffer much loss).

Hardly is occasionally used meaning 'with difficulty' but is often better avoided because of the risk of ambiguity. *Hardly earned money* may suggest 'money earned with difficulty', but it may also suggest 'money that was earned without the proper amount of work being done, money that was scarcely earned'. For this reason *hard-earned money* is preferable to *hardly earned money* for 'money earned with hard work'.

The adverb *justly* means 'with right or justice': *As you justly (rightly) observe . . . He was justly punished.*

The adverb *just* has no connexion with the adjective *just* and the noun *justice.* Here are examples to illustrate various uses: *just so* (quite so, or, in exactly that manner); *just now; just then; just here; just as you say. We only just managed to catch the train. I've just seen him. He earns just enough for his needs.*

The adverb *late* is the opposite of the adverb *early: go to bed late; stay up late; arrive late; marry late in life; sooner or later.*

Lately means 'recently': *I haven't seen him lately.*

The adverb *mostly* means 'for the most part': *The motor-cars manufactured in England in 1952 were mostly exported. Houses built in England are mostly of brick or stone.*

Most is an irregular superlative (cf. *much*): *What pleased me most was that . . . The people most concerned in the business.*

After such verbs as *smell, taste,* and *feel* an adjective, not an adverb, is generally used, especially when the verb *be* can be substituted. See § 53.

This medicine tastes nasty (= is nasty when tasted).
The roses smell sweet (= are sweet to the sense of smell).
You will feel safe with him (feel that you are safe).

When the verb cannot be replaced by *be*, an adverb, not an adjective, is needed.

The man smelt strongly of whisky.
This soup tastes strongly of fish.

PART 5

Various Concepts and how to Express Them

COMMANDS, PROHIBITIONS, REQUESTS, INVITATIONS, SUGGESTIONS

§ 109 a. These may be expressed in various ways. The verbs *command*, *order*, *request*, *invite*, and *suggest*, and the corresponding nouns, may be used. Note the verb patterns in these examples.

He commanded (*ordered*, *told*, *asked*, *requested*, *invited*) *the men to come early*. (*VP* 3) (*Suggest* is not used in *VP* 3.)
He commanded (*ordered*, *asked*, *requested*, *suggested*) *that the men should come early*. (*VP* 11) (*Tell* and *invite* are not used in *VP* 11.)
He gave orders (*issued a command*, *made the suggestion*) *that the prisoners should be set free*. (*NP* 3. See § 78.) (Note the use of *should* in the *that*-clauses after a verb in the Past Tense.)
He gave orders for the setting free of the prisoners (*orders for the prisoners to be set free*). (*NP* 1. See § 77 d.)

Compare the constructions in these examples.

The Captain ordered his men to fire a salute.
The Captain ordered that a salute should be fired.
The Captain ordered a salute to be fired.
The Captain gave orders that a salute should be fired.
The Captain gave orders for a salute to be fired.
The Captain gave orders for the firing of a salute.

§ 109 b. Other ways of expressing commands or requests vary from the plain imperative to polite formulas.

Be here at nine o'clock.

He was hardly hit by the financial crisis (i.e. it had hardly any, scarcely any, effect on him, so that he did not suffer much loss).

Hardly is occasionally used meaning 'with difficulty' but is often better avoided because of the risk of ambiguity. *Hardly earned money* may suggest 'money earned with difficulty', but it may also suggest 'money that was earned without the proper amount of work being done, money that was scarcely earned'. For this reason *hard-earned money* is preferable to *hardly earned money* for 'money earned with hard work'.

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After such verbs as *smell, taste,* and *feel* an adjective, not an adverb, is generally used, especially when the verb *be* can be substituted. See § 53.

This medicine tastes nasty (= is nasty when tasted).
The roses smell sweet (= are sweet to the sense of smell).
You will feel safe with him (feel that you are safe).

When the verb cannot be replaced by *be*, an adverb, not an adjective, is needed.

The man smelt strongly of whisky.
This soup tastes strongly of fish.

PART 5

Various Concepts and how to Express Them

COMMANDS, PROHIBITIONS, REQUESTS, INVITATIONS, SUGGESTIONS

§ **109 a.** These may be expressed in various ways. The verbs *command, order, request, invite,* and *suggest,* and the corresponding nouns, may be used. Note the verb patterns in these examples.

> *He commanded (ordered, told, asked, requested, invited) the men to come early.* (*VP 3*) (*Suggest* is not used in *VP 3*.)
> *He commanded (ordered, asked, requested, suggested) that the men should come early.* (*VP 11*) (*Tell* and *invite* are not used in *VP 11*.)
> *He gave orders (issued a command, made the suggestion) that the prisoners should be set free.* (*NP 3*. See § 78.) (Note the use of *should* in the *that*-clauses after a verb in the Past Tense.)
> *He gave orders for the setting free of the prisoners (orders for the prisoners to be set free).* (*NP 1*. See § 77 d.)

Compare the constructions in these examples.

> *The Captain ordered his men to fire a salute.*
> *The Captain ordered that a salute should be fired.*
> *The Captain ordered a salute to be fired.*
> *The Captain gave orders that a salute should be fired.*
> *The Captain gave orders for a salute to be fired.*
> *The Captain gave orders for the firing of a salute.*

§ **109 b.** Other ways of expressing commands or requests vary from the plain imperative to polite formulas.

> *Be here at nine o'clock.*

You must be here at nine o'clock.
Will you be here at nine o'clock.
Would you mind being here at nine o'clock.
Will you be kind enough to be here at nine o'clock.

These various ways of expressing a command or request are dealt with below. In speaking, intonation is important. It can make a plain imperative polite. It can change what is normally a polite formula into an impatient command.

§ **109 c.** With the ordinary imperative it is usually unnecessary to indicate the subject.

Come here! Go away! Shut the door!

When a subject is needed, for example when commands are given to more than one person or group, the subject may precede the verb or be placed at the end.

You carry the table into the garden, Harry, and you girls take out some chairs.
Come on, everybody! Call a taxi, somebody!

The use of *you* may be for emphasis or to express annoyance, impatience, or some other emotion.

You mind your own business! Mind your own business, you!

The addition of *don't* changes a command into a prohibition.

Don't make so much noise! Don't go too near the edge!

Note that *don't* is used with *be* (not otherwise normally conjugated with *do*).

Don't be late for school! Don't be silly!

You is occasionally used after *don't* for emphasis.

Don't you dare do that again! And don't you forget it!

§ **109 d.** The use of *please* or *will you* with the imperative softens a command to a request.

Shut the door, please. Help me with this luggage, will you?

The addition of *won't you* changes the imperative into an invitation.

Come in, won't you? Have a cup of tea, won't you?

The placing of *just* before an imperative also softens it. *Just* is often used in addition to *will you.*

Just come here a minute, will you?

Just is also used before an imperative to call attention to something considered remarkable or unusual.

Just listen to her! (and note how silly, clever, perverse, etc., she is.)

§ **109 e.** The verb *wish* is used with *would* in a *that*-clause to make a request. *That* is usually omitted.

I wish you'd be quiet. (= Please be quiet.)

§ **109 f.** Note the use of *let* as an imperative with a following infinitive.

Let me go! Let us know whether you can come. Let me give you some advice. Don't let the dog worry those sheep. Let there be light. Let there be no more of this quarrelling.

This use of *let* is to be distinguished from the use of *let* to make a suggestion. When *let* is used to make a suggestion, it is followed by *us*, but always in the form *let's. Shall we* is often added. Compare:

Let us know whether you can come. (= Please inform us whether you can come.)
Let's start early, shall we? (= I suggest that we should start early.)

Let is also used in the imperative in *VP 10*, i.e. with an adverbial adjunct.

Let the window down. Don't let the dog out.

§ **109 g.** Another common construction for conveying a

command is the verb *be* with a *to*-infinitive. See § 36 e, Table No. 68. Used with *not* it conveys a prohibition.

You are always to knock before you enter my room. You're not to come into my room without knocking. You are to write your name at the top of each sheet of paper. Entries are to be sent in so that they reach the Registrar before May the third. Mother told me I was not to speak to strange men.

§ **109 h.** The verb *shall* is used in biblical style for commands.

Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.

The addition of *not* makes a prohibition.

Thou shalt not steal.

§ **109 i.** Prohibitions are often indicated by means of brief announcements such as these:

No smoking! No parking! Smoking not allowed. Parking prohibited between 8 a.m. and 6 p.m.

Must not is used for prohibitions.

Cars must not be parked in front of the entrance.

§ **109 j.** *Cannot* is used in the sense 'not allowed or permitted to'.

Stop! You can't do that!
You can't play football in the park today! It's Sunday.

Cf. the use of *may not* (§ 115 c).

§ **109 k.** The most usual form of request is that introduced by *will you.* In modern English *will you* is being more and more used in place of *shall you* to ask about the future. In some cases there may be ambiguity.

Will you be back early this evening?

This question, put by a wife to her husband as he leaves home in the morning, might mean (*a*) *Are you likely to be back home early this evening?* or (*b*) *Please be back early this evening.*

The use of *shall you* makes the question unambiguous. It asks about the future. Note that there is no ambiguity in the question:

(*At*) *what time will you be back this evening?*

A request with *will you* can be made unambiguous, and more polite, by the addition of *please*. Or the formula *would you mind* may be used.

Would you mind waiting until later? Would you mind helping me to lift this box? Would you mind not smoking in the dining-room, please?

Would you mind and *do you mind* are often used to ask permission, or to ask whether a person objects to something.

Would you mind if I opened the window? Do you mind if I open the window? Do you mind my opening the window?

Would you may replace *will you* in requests. It may convey a suggestion of hesitation or diffidence on the part of the speaker.

Would (will) you pass the salt, please? Would you come back a little later?

Won't you is also used for invitations.

Won't you stay a little longer? Won't you have some more? Won't you come in?

§ **109 l.** *Will* as an auxiliary of the Future Tense does not occur in conditional clauses.

If you help me, we shall soon finish.

Will used to make a request does occur in conditional clauses.

If you will help me, we shall soon finish. (Please help me; then we shall soon finish.)

If you would lend me £5, I shall be able to manage.

§ **109 m.** *Could* and (less often) *can* are used to make informal requests.

Could you lend me five shillings until tomorrow? Could I have that dictionary, please? Can I see your railway time-table?

§ **109 n.** *May* and *might* are used in questions.

May I trouble you to pass that dictionary? Might I borrow your pen a minute?

Might (but not *may*) is used to make requests or suggestions in statement form.

You might make a little less noise. (= Please make a little less noise.)

§ 109 o. There are numerous other forms of polite request.

Will (*would*) *you be so kind* (*good*) *as to help me with this luggage? Perhaps you'd like to help me with this luggage.*

Had better combines advice and suggestion. It conveys the idea: 'it would be advisable or right to . . .'.

We'd better start early. You'd better do as the doctor says and stay in bed.

Note also the use of *suppose* or *supposing*, *how about* or *what about*, to make informal suggestions.

Suppose we try to do it my way. Suppose you let me have a try. How (*what*) *about trying to do it my way?*

PROMISES AND THREATS; REFUSALS

§ 110 a. Promises and threats can be expressed by the use of the verb *promise*, the verb *threaten*, and the nouns *promise* and *threat*. They can also be expressed by the use of the verbs *shall* and *will*.

§ 110 b. *Promise* is used with a *to*-infinitive (*VP 2 & 3*), with two objects (*VP 18 & 19*), and with *that*-clauses (*VP 11 & 12*). The indirect object is often dropped.

He promised (*me*) *to come early.*
Please promise not to tell anyone.
Didn't you promise the book to your brother?
Mr. Green has promised his son a new bicycle if he passes the examination.
The foreman has promised that the work shall be done before Saturday.
They promised that the work should be done before Saturday.

Note, in the last two examples, the use of *shall* and *should* in the *that*-clause.

The noun *promise* is also used with a *to*-infinitive or a *that*-clause.

He broke his promise to help me.
I hope they will keep their promise that the work shall be done by the end of next week.
They didn't keep their promise that the work should be finished before the end of the week.

The verb *threaten* is used with a *to*-infinitive and in the pattern *threaten somebody with something.*

They threatened to punish him.
They threatened him with death if he did not tell them what he knew.

§ **110 c.** In the first person *will* is used to express a promise or threat.

I will be there to help.
I will punish you if you don't behave yourself.

In the second and third persons *shall* and *should* are used to express promises and threats.

You shall have the money next week.
Ask and it shall be given you. (Bible, A.V.)
A: '*I want this luggage taken to my room.*'
B: '*It shall be taken up at once, sir.*'
If he passes the examination he shall have a new bicycle.
Tom was told that if he behaved badly he should go to bed without any supper.

§ **110 d.** Refusals can be indicated by the use of the verb *refuse.* This verb can be used with a direct object (*VP 1*), with a *to*-infinitive (*VP 2*), or with two objects (*VP 19*).

They refused our offer. The invitation was refused. (*VP 1*)
He refused to help me. I asked him to come but he refused. (*VP 2*)
He refuses her nothing (i.e. he gives her everything she asks for). (*VP 19*)

§ **110 e.** A more colloquial way of indicating refusal is the use of *will not* (*won't*) and *would not* (*wouldn't*).

I won't (I refuse to) *do it.*
They won't (they refuse to) *accept your offer.*
Why won't she (why does she refuse to) *do what you ask her to do?*
He wouldn't (he refused to) *answer any questions.*
The engine wouldn't start.
The wound wouldn't heal.

WISHES, HOPES, PREFERENCES

§ **111 a.** In some languages there is an optative mood, i.e. a set of verbal forms to indicate wishes. There is no optative mood in English.

In a few cases, chiefly fixed phrases or minor patterns, wishes are expressed by the use of the subjunctive.

God save the Queen! Long live the Queen! God bless you! Grammar be hanged!

The subjunctive equivalent with *may* is commoner.

May God bless you! May you have a long and happy life! Long may you live to enjoy it! Much good may it do you!

§ **111 b.** *May* and *might* are used in *that*-clauses after such verbs as *hope* and *trust*. In less formal style *may* and *might* are not much used.

I trust that this arrangement may (less formal *will*) *meet with your approval. He trusted that the arrangement might* (less formal *would*) *meet with our approval.*
I hope he may succeed. (Less formal, *succeeds* or *will succeed.*) *I hoped he might succeed.* (Less formal, *would succeed.*)

§ **111 c.** In ordinary colloquial style the imperative is often used to express a wish.

Well, have a good time! Enjoy yourselves! (The use of *may*, as in: *May you have a good time! May you enjoy yourselves* is formal.)

§ **111 d.** The verb *wish* (or exclamatory *if only*) can be used with a *that*-clause (*VP 11*). The conjunction *that* is almost always omitted. *That* is always omitted after *if only*. If the wish refers to present or future time, the Past Tense is used in the clause. For a wish that was not or could not be realized in the past, the Past Perfect Tense is used in the clause.

I wish I knew how to do it. (I'm sorry I don't know.)
I wish I had known how to do it. (I didn't know.)
I wish I hadn't gone. (I'm sorry I did go.)
I wish I didn't have to go. (I'm sorry I have to go.)
I wish I could help you.
He wishes his wife wouldn't spend so much time gossiping with the neighbours.
I wish I were rich. (See § 119 e for the use of *were*.)
If only the rain would stop! I wish the rain would stop!
If only I knew! If only I had known!

For the use of *wish* with *would* in the *that*-clause, see § 109 e.

§ **111 e.** *Wish* is used with an Indirect Object and a Direct Object (*VP 19A*).

He wished me a pleasant journey. They wished her success in her new career. He wished me good night. I wish you all a merry Christmas and a happy New Year.

§ **111 f.** *Wish* is also used with a *to*-infinitive (*VP 2, VP 3*), but in these patterns *want* is commoner.

Where do you wish (*want*) *me to go? What do they wish* (*want*) *me to do?*

Note the use of *want* or *wish* in *if*-clauses (*will* being impossible in such clauses) to indicate a desire.

If you want to smoke, you must go into a smoking compartment.

(The use of *will* in an *if*-clause indicates willingness or insistence, request, not desire. *If you will help me, we can soon finish the work.* See § 119 f and g.)

§ **111 g.** *Wish* is also used with the preposition *for* (*VP 24*). The phrase *wish for* means 'feel or express a desire for', usually a desire for something that is considered unattainable or unlikely to be attained. If, therefore, you go into a shop, you would not say, 'I wish for a fountain pen.' You would say 'I want a fountain pen.' *Wish for* is used more often in situations where the object of the wish or desire is something that can come, or is likely to come, only through chance or unexpectedly.

'What do you wish for?' said the genie to Aladdin.
The weather was all that one could wish for (*all that could be wished for*).
She has everything that a woman could wish for.

§ **111 h.** *Shall I* (*we*) is often used to introduce a question about a person's wishes. It may be an offer of service. Alternatives, used in those parts of the English-speaking world where *shall* is going out of use, are 'Do you want me to' and 'Would you like me to'.

Shall I thread the needle for you? Shall I open the window? Shall we carry the box into the house for you?

Shall with a third person (pro)noun asks about the wishes of the person to whom the question is put.

Shall the porter carry your bags upstairs? (Do you want, would you like, the porter to do this?) *Shall the messenger wait? The hotel manager asked me whether the taxi should wait* (whether I wanted the taxi to wait).

§ **111 i.** Instead of *shall I* (*we, he,* etc.) the construction *be* × *to*-infinitive may be used. This, however, asks for orders rather than about wishes. See § 36 e, Table No. 68, and § 109 g.

Is the messenger to wait? The manager asked me whether the taxi was to wait. What am I to do next?

§ **111 j.** *I should* (*would*) *like*, often contracted to *I'd like*, is used to express a wish.

I'd like to be there. (I wish I were there.) *I'd like to have been there* or *I'd have liked to be there.* (I wish I had been there.)

Would you like asks about a person's wishes.

At what time would you like breakfast? Would you like me to order a taxi?

§ **111 k.** The verb *hope* is used with a *that*-clause (*VP 11*), with a *to*-infinitive (*VP 2*), and with *for* (*VP 24*). *That* is usually omitted.

I hope (that) he has arrived safely. I'm hoping to hear that he has arrived safely. I'm hoping for news of his safe arrival.

Note the possible use of the Present Tense instead of the Future Tense in the clause.

I hope he will arrive (I hope he arrives) safely.

The time will come, I hope, when you (will) have more leisure.

Cf. { *We hope to see you in May.*
We shall hope to see you in May.

The use of the Future Tense in the last example does not indicate much difference in meaning. The example might be recomposed:

We hope (that) we shall see you in May.

The use of the Past Perfect Tense indicates a past hope that was not realized.

We had hoped that she would soon be well again.

§ **111 l.** Preference can be indicated by the use of the verb *prefer* and the noun *preference*. *Prefer* is used in several patterns.

I prefer my meat well done (*VP 9*). *Would you prefer to start early* (*VP 2*)? *I should have preferred you to start early* (*VP 3*). *He preferred that nothing should be said about his generous gifts* (*VP 11*). *I prefer walking to cycling* (*VP 18*).

Note the use of *rather than* in the next example. *Than* must not be used without *rather* after *prefer*.

I should prefer to start early rather than have to travel in crowded trains.

§ **111 m.** The phrase *would rather* is also used to indicate preference. It is used with a bare infinitive.

I would rather stay at home (than go for a walk).

When used with a (pro)noun and a *that*-clause, the Past Tense is used in the clause. The *that* is usually omitted.

I would rather you stayed at home. He would rather people didn't know about his generous gifts.

INTENTION

§ **112 a.** Intention can be expressed by the use of the verbs *intend* and *mean* and the nouns *intention*, *plan*, *design*, etc.

I intend to buy a new bicycle.
It is my intention to buy a new bicycle.
Where do you intend to spend your summer holidays?
I don't intend to do it.
I have no intention of doing it.
He means to make his pupils respect him.
Do you think they meant to start another war?

Note that in *that*-clauses after *intend* and *intention* the verbs *shall-should* are used.

We intend (Our intention is) that this Bill shall become law before the end of this year.
We intended (Our intention was) that this Bill should become law before the end of this year.

§ **112 b.** The construction *going to*×infinitive is very commonly used to indicate intention. (For other uses of this construction see § 116 e, f.)

He's going to buy a new bicycle.
We're not going to have this tree cut down.
This tree is not going to be cut down. (I.e. We are not going to cut this tree down.)
We're going to grow more vegetables this year.
Are you going to take the examination?

Note that the use of *was-were* indicates a past intention or plan that was *not* carried out.

I was going to call on you yesterday evening, but it rained (so I did *not* call on you).

Note that when *going to* is used, the idea of intention is more prominent than the idea of futurity. Note also that when there are external circumstances that may influence a person's plans, constructions with *will-shall* are preferable. Compare:

Tom's father is going to buy him a bicycle.

This is a simple statement of intention.

If Tom passes the examination, his father is going to buy him a bicycle.

Here, too, there is an intention, though the fulfilment of the intention depends upon Tom's passing the examination. But Tom's father has the intention.

If Tom asks his father to buy him a bicycle, his father will probably do so.

In this sentence *going to* is impossible. Tom's father is unlikely to have the intention of buying the bicycle because he has not yet been asked to do so.

In some cases, however, the idea of intention is not very obvious and the construction *going to* is used in a sense not much different from that with *will-shall.*

Now, children, I'm going to tell you a story.

This means little more than 'I am about to tell you a story'.

PLANS AND ARRANGEMENTS

§ **113 a.** Plans and arrangements can be stated or asked about by the use of the verbs *plan* and *arrange* and the nouns *plan* and *arrangement.*

I have planned (arranged) to go to Glasgow next week.

She has made plans (arrangements) to spend her holiday in Wales.

We have made plans (we have agreed) to get married in May.

A simpler way of indicating or asking about something arranged, planned, or decided upon is the use of the progressive tenses.

I am going to Glasgow next week.
She is spending her holiday in Wales.
We're getting married in May.

The Past Progressive is used in reported speech.

She said she was going to the theatre that evening.
He told me he was going to Glasgow.

§ **113 b.** The Future Progressive is also used to show that an event will occur as part of a plan or programme. In many cases there is little or no difference between the Present Progressive and the Future Progressive.

I'm seeing Green at my club this afternoon.
I shall be seeing Green at my club this afternoon.

In some cases the use of the Future Progressive shows not only that the future event or activity is part of a programme but also that, for this reason, something else is possible or likely. In the examples below there are, in parenthesis, suggestions of the kind of possibility or likelihood that might be present.

Shall you be getting home late this evening? (If so, it may be necessary to keep supper back.)

I shall be seeing Green this evening. (Is there anything you'd like me to tell him?)

We shall be having supper in about twenty minutes (so don't go out).

He will be coming to see us again soon (so we needn't trouble to send him the book he left here).

The use of the Present Progressive shows that an event has been decided upon. The use of the Future Progressive may look

beyond the event to something made possible or likely by the event.

The interrogative form of the Future Progressive is often no more than a polite form used to ask about future intentions. Compare:

Are you staying in London long? (This is a simple inquiry about plans.)
Are you going to stay in London long? (This puts more emphasis on intention.)
Shall (will) you be going to the party? (This asks, in a more polite way, about plans.)

§ **113 c.** Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the Simple Present Tense. There is usually an adverbial to show future time.

I leave for Berlin on Saturday.
The 'Queen Mary' sails for New York on Monday afternoon.
Is it this evening that we dine at the Whites'?
When do the school holidays begin?
When does your father get back from his journey round Nigeria?

§ **113 d.** Plans, arrangements, and agreements are also indicated by the use of the finites of *be* and a *to*-infinitive.

We are to be married in May.
Jim and Mary are to meet us at the station.
The new building is to be ten stories high.

The use of a perfect infinitive indicates an arrangement that was made but not carried out.

We were to have been married in May but had to postpone the marriage until June.

This construction is also used to indicate obligation, an arrangement that is the result of a command or request made by a third person. See § 36 e, Table No. 68 and § 109 g. It should be used

to indicate a voluntary arrangement only when there is no ambiguity. Compare:

He is leaving at eight o'clock this evening.
He is to leave at eight o'clock this evening.

The second sentence suggests an arrangement made as the result of orders.

OBLIGATION AND NECESSITY

§ **114 a.** There are many ways of expressing the ideas of obligation and necessity. The verbs *oblige* and *compel,* the nouns *obligation, compulsion, need,* and *necessity,* and the adjectives *obligatory, compulsory, needless,* and (*un*)*necessary* are obvious ways of expressing these ideas.

In most countries the law obliges parents to send their children to school.
Is attendance at school obligatory?
If, through carelessness, someone damages your bicycle he is under a legal obligation to pay the cost of repairs.
He was compelled by illness to give up his studies.
A defeated enemy usually signs a treaty under compulsion.
Military service is compulsory in many countries.
There is no necessity (It is not necessary) for you to do that.
Is there any need for haste?
Needless to say, . . .

§ **114 b.** The ideas of obligation and necessity are expressed more idiomatically by the use of the verbs *must, ought to, should, have to,* and *be to.* Absence of necessity is expressed by *have not to* and *need not.*

§ **114 c.** *Must* is a defective verb. It can be used to express an immediate or future obligation. In reported speech *must* is used for past time. Except in reported speech a past obligation is not normally expressed by *must.* (See *have to* below.)

You must do as you are told.
He said they must do as they were told.

Soldiers must obey orders without question.
Must you go so soon? Yes, I must.
As he had broken my watch he agreed that he must pay the cost of the repairs.
On the other side of the wood there was a field that he must (= had to) *cross.*
Candidates must (= are required to) *answer at least five out of the ten questions.*

For *must not*, see § 109 **i**.

§ **114 d.** Absence of obligation or necessity may be expressed by *need not* (*need hardly*, *need scarcely*) and by constructions with the noun *need* or the adjective *needless*.

Must you go so soon? No, I need not go yet.
He didn't need to be reminded about it. (It wasn't necessary to remind him about it.)
I need hardly tell you . . . (It is hardly necessary for me to tell you . . .)
You needn't have hurried. (There was no need, no necessity, for you to hurry—although, in fact, you did hurry.)
I didn't need to hurry. (It was not necessary for me to hurry—and, in fact, I did not hurry.)
Need we tell him about it? (Is there any need for us to tell him? Are we obliged to tell him? Is it necessary for us to tell him?)
There's no need for you to hurry. (It is) *Needless to say, we shall refund any expenses you may incur.*

For the difference between anomalous *need* and non-anomalous *need*, see § 8.

§ **114 e.** *Have to* is regularly used to express obligation and necessity. In the present tense, affirmative and interrogative, it means the same as *must*. For absence of obligation *have not to* or *do not have to* is occasionally used but *need not* is much more usual.

The construction with *have to* is very common for past and

future time (because *must* is defective). In colloquial style *have got to* and *has got to* are used for *have to* and *has to*. *Had got to* is occasionally used for *had to*.

For the use of auxiliary *do*, interrogative and negative, see § 4 f.

At what time have you (got) to be there? (At what time must you be there? At what time is it necessary for you to be there?)

She had to be in the office by nine o'clock. (She was required to be there, it was necessary for her to be there, by nine o'clock.)

We shall have to hurry. (It will be necessary for us to hurry.)

We had to hurry. (It was necessary for us, we were obliged, or compelled, to hurry.)

We've got to be there (we must be there) *by ten o'clock.*

Have we (got) to (must we) *answer all the questions?*

These shoes will have to be repaired. (It will be necessary to have them repaired.)

§ **114 f.** Absence of obligation is expressed by *have not to, haven't got to*. See § 13 g, Table No. 3.

He's so rich that he doesn't have to work (is not obliged to work, need not work).

You don't have to go to school seven days a week, do you?

Tomorrow's a holiday, so I shan't have to go to the office.

We haven't got to (are not required to) *answer all the questions in the examination paper, have we?*

Note that *have not to* is rarely used for a prohibition. See *must not* (§ 109 i).

§ **114 g.** The finites of *be* with a *to*-infinitive are also used to indicate an obligation.

We are to be there at nine o'clock.

For this construction see Commands and Requests (§ 109 g).

§ **114 h.** *Ought* is used to express desirability, moral obligation,

and duties. *Ought* is a defective verb. It can indicate present or future time. It is used of past time in reported speech.

You ought to start at once (if you want to catch your train).
You ought to leave early tomorrow morning.
He ought to be ashamed of his ignorance.
Ought I to go? Yes, I think you ought (*to*).
I told him that he ought to do it, so he did it.

§ **114 i.** *Should* is used in a similar way. *Should* is often used when giving or asking for advice. It is not so strong as *ought* and often indicates a recommendation rather than an obligation. It is used with the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons.

You shouldn't laugh at his mistakes.
How much should I contribute towards the relief fund?
Do you think he should apologize (that he ought to apologize)?
You shouldn't give the baby scissors to play with.

§ **114 j.** *Ought to have* and *should have* with a past participle are used to indicate a past obligation that was not fulfilled or carried out.

You ought to have helped him (but you did not).
He ought to have been more careful. (He was not careful enough.)
You should have used the money for paying your debts instead of for a new motor-cycle.
I think you should have told her you were sorry.
You should have put part of your salary in the bank each month.

§ **114 k.** *Ought not to have* and *should not have* are used to indicate disapproval of something that was done in the past.

You shouldn't have (*oughtn't to have*) *laughed at his mistakes.*
She shouldn't have given the baby scissors to play with.

§ **114 l.** The *to*-infinitive after a conjunctive may indicate or ask about desirability, obligation, or duty. See § 24, *VP 13* (Table

No. 28) and § 25, *VP 14* (Table No. 29). Sentences in these two patterns are convertible into sentences in *VP 15* and *VP 16*, in which the modal auxiliaries *must, should, ought* (or *have to, be to*) may be used.

Cf. { *We must find out what to do next.* (*VP 13*)
We must find out what we should (ought to, have to) do next. (*VP 15*)

Cf. { *Do you know how to do it?* (*VP 13*)
Do you know how you should (ought to, are to) do it? Do you know how it should be done? (*VP 15*)

Cf. { *Tell me how to do it.* (*VP 14*)
Tell me how I must (should, ought to) do it. (*VP 16*)

Cf. { *Ask your mother where to put it.* (*VP 14*)
Ask your mother where you are to (should, must) put it. (*VP 16*)

PERMISSION

§ **115 a.** There are several ways of expressing the idea of permission. The verbs *permit*, *allow*, and *let* and the noun *permission* are obvious examples.

Will you permit (allow) me to use your bicycle?
The manager gave his typist permission to leave early.
My doctor won't let me get up yet.

Allow and *permit* are often used for past and future time.

During the curfew nobody was allowed to be out after sunset.
Shall we be allowed (permitted) to stay up late on New Year's Eve?

§ **115 b.** A more idiomatic way of expressing the idea of permission is the use of the modal verbs *may* and *might.*

May is regularly used for asking and giving permission. *May not* is used to deny permission.

May I come in? Yes, you may.
May I borrow your pen? Yes, you may.

May I borrow your toothbrush? No, you may not.
If I may say so, your work needs revision.
He asked if he might leave the office half an hour early that afternoon.
The manager answered that he might not.

§ 115 c. *May not* is also used, in formal style, in statements that are not answers or denials of requests.

Borrowers may not (are not permitted to) *take out of the Library more than two books at a time.*

For a prohibition (stronger than a denial of permission) *must not* is used. (See § 109 i.)

Reference books must not be taken away from the Reading Room.

§ 115 d. Note the use of *may* and *might* in these examples:

The weather has been excellent and we may expect a good harvest.
He said he thought we might expect a good harvest.
With such a strong Ministry we may hope for an improvement in the country's affairs.

Here the use of *may* suggests the idea 'it is reasonable for us to expect, hope for, etc.'.

§ 115 e. In colloquial style *can* and *could* often replace *may* and *might*.

Can I go for a swim this afternoon, mother?
Can I go out and play? No, you can't.
Tom asked his father whether he could go to the cinema. His father said he could.

This use of *can* and *could* for permission should be avoided in formal style.

Cannot is sometimes used to express a prohibition. (Cf. § 109 j.)

You cannot (must not, are not allowed to) *play football in the park on Sundays, though you may do so on weekdays.*

§ **115 f.** *May* is sometimes used in questions in these ways:

And how much did you pay for your new car, if I may ask?

The words *if I may ask* are a kind of apology for asking the question. They mean: if you will allow me to ask such a question.

And what may you want?
And how old may (might) you be?
And who may you be?

In these three examples (with stress on *you* in each of them) there is a suggestion of condescension or superiority on the part of the speaker.

§ **115 g.** If *might* is used instead of *may* it indicates some hesitation or diffidence on the part of the speaker. It makes a more polite form. It is used chiefly in requests and replaces an imperative.

Might I borrow your pen a minute?

For further examples, see Requests (§ 109 n.).

PROBABILITY AND LIKELIHOOD

§ **116 a.** These concepts can be indicated by the adjectives *probable* and *likely*, the adverb *probably*, and the nouns *probability*, *likelihood*, and *chance*. See also § 117 on Possibility.

Is it likely (probable) that he will come?
Is there any probability (likelihood, chance) of his coming?
He will probably come.

§ **116 b.** *Dare say* (rare except in the 1st person) is also used to suggest likelihood. *Daresay* (as one word) is often used.

I dare say he'll come later.
You're tired, I daresay.

§ **116 c.** *Must* is also used to indicate a strong likelihood.

Your father must be nearly eighty now.
You must be hungry after your long walk.
We must have taken a wrong turning.
It must be getting on for (is probably almost) *ten o'clock.*
Why isn't he here? He must have missed the train.
They must have been enjoying themselves.

§ **116 d.** *Ought* and *should* are used in the same way as *must.* The use of these verbs suggests: 'Because of the known facts, conditions, etc., it is likely that . . .'

If he started at nine he ought to be (*should be*) *here by four.*
They left at nine, so they ought to (*should*) *have arrived by now.*
The author is a well-known expert, so his book ought to be (*should be*) *reliable.*
That should (*ought to*) *please you* (is likely to please you, will probably please you).
Bend Or is the horse that ought to win the race.

§ **116 e.** The construction *going to* × infinitive is used to indicate something that the speaker feels or considers to be likely or probable. The subject is not a person but a thing (or the impersonal pronoun *it*).

This table is going to collapse one of these days; the legs are very weak.
Cf. The table *will collapse* if you stand on it. (Here the *if*-clause makes the use of *will* preferable.)
Be careful! The ice is going to crack!
Cf. The ice *will melt* if the sun comes out.
Cf. This ice *is going to melt* when the sun comes out. (This is a statement of what the speaker feels probable.)
You'd better take an umbrella. It's going to rain before evening. (The speaker feels that rain is likely.)
Cf. There *will be* rain in the London area during the night. (Official weather forecast.)

The sun's going to come out soon. (The speaker feels that it is likely to do so, perhaps because the clouds already show signs of parting.)
The sun will rise at 6.35 tomorrow morning. (Simple future; no element of probability.)
Is this shortage of houses going to continue?
The work is going to be more difficult than I expected.

§ 116 f. The construction *going to* × infinitive is also used when the subject of the sentence is a person. Compare:

I'm going to have a cup of tea. (Intention. See § 112 b.)
I think I'm going to have flu. (This indicates the speaker's feeling that he will probably have flu.)
We're going to enjoy our day by the sea; the weather forecast says it will be warm and sunny. (Because of the weather forecast the speaker feels that the day's outing will be enjoyable.)
I haven't worked very hard this term. I'm afraid I'm not going to pass the examination (i.e. am unlikely to pass it).
Tom's going to find himself in trouble one of these days. (This indicates the speaker's feeling about Tom.)

§ 116 g. *Will* and *would* are also used to indicate probability, likelihood, or conjecture.

This will be the book you're looking for. (This is probably, this is likely to be, the book you're looking for.)
That will be the postman, I expect.
You will have heard the news. (You have probably heard the news.)
She won't have heard the news. (It is unlikely that she has heard the news.)
That happened a long time ago. I would be (was probably) *about twenty at the time.*
She would be (was probably) *about fifty when she died.*
A: '*I don't understand this article in the newspaper.*'
B: '*No, you wouldn't.*' (I.e. It's unlikely that you would

understand it, perhaps because it's too difficult or perhaps because you're too stupid.)

The girl at the Information Desk will know what time the next train for Edinburgh leaves (i.e. is likely to know).

Note that the construction *be going to* is impossible in the examples in this section.

POSSIBILITY

§ 117 a. There are several ways of indicating possibility. For possibility that depends upon ability or knowledge see § 118. The adjective *possible*, the noun *possibility*, and the adverbs *possibly* and *perhaps* are obvious ways.

It is possible that he will come.
There is a possibility of his coming (*that he will come*).
Possibly he has not heard the news yet.
Perhaps he has been ill.

§ 117 b. When we wish to indicate a possibility with which doubt or uncertainty is mixed, *may* and *might* are often used.

It may rain tomorrow.
He said he thought it might rain.
I may be away from home tomorrow.
He may need to borrow money.
That may, or may not, be true.
It's so quiet (that) one may hear a pin drop.
It was so quiet (that) one might hear a pin drop.
If I ask him again, he may refuse.
I was afraid that if I asked him again, he might refuse.

§ 117 c. *Might* is used in reported speech for past time, but is also used to indicate a future possibility if this is looked upon as more remote or uncertain. Compare:

Take an umbrella. It will rain before evening.
You'd better take an umbrella. It may rain before evening. (Rain is possible. The sky is cloudy.)

I think you should take an umbrella. It might rain before evening. (Although the sky is bright now, a change in the weather is always possible in this climate.)

Mr. X: '*We might win £500 at the races.*'

Mrs. X: '*Yes, and pigs might fly.*'

§ 117 d. Note the use of *may* and *might* with perfect infinitives.

He may have been hurt. (Perhaps he was hurt. The possibility exists. We do not yet know.)

He might have been hurt. (That was a possibility in the past. But he was not hurt.)

He isn't back yet. He may have had an accident. (Perhaps he has had an accident. We do not know yet.)

You oughtn't to have driven that car with the brakes out of order. You might have had a serious accident. (But luckily you did not have an accident.)

He might have come if we had asked him (but we didn't ask him to come).

You might have asked me to your wedding! (This is a reproach addressed to someone for not sending an invitation.)

§ 117 e. *May* is also used to indicate a possibility that arises naturally, or as the result of arrangement. There is, in this case, little or no element of uncertainty. For this reason *may* is replaceable by *can* or *be possible.* The negative is never *may not* but always *cannot* or *be impossible.* Even in the affirmative *can* is, in colloquial style, as frequent as, perhaps more frequent than, *may.*

You may go (You can go, it is possible to go) *from A to B by changing trains at C, or you may* (can) *go by way of D, but you cannot go* (it is impossible to go) *there direct.*

In the passive voice *may* is preferred to *can.*

Specimen copies of these textbooks may be obtained on application to the publisher.

A plan of the new housing estate may be seen at the offices of the Town Council.

§ **117 f.** *May* and *might* (and in colloquial style *can* and *could*) often indicate what is possible and also likely.

You may (might) walk miles and miles through the forest without meeting anyone.

§ **117 g.** When possibility and uncertainty are mixed, *may not* is used for the negative.

The news may, or may not, be true.
May the news not be true?

In questions asking about possibility, however, *can* is used.

Can the news be true?
Could the news be true, she wondered.

Similarly *cannot* indicates a belief that something is impossible.

The news can't be true!

§ **117 h.** When *can* is stressed in a question beginning with an interrogative, it suggests puzzlement or impatience.

What 'can he mean?
What 'could he mean, she wondered.
Where 'can he have got to?

Compare the use of *ever* and the colloquial use of *on earth, in the world, the devil, in the name of goodness.*

What ever does he mean?
What on earth does he mean?
What in the world does he want?

ABILITY AND ACHIEVEMENT (AND THEIR OPPOSITES)

§ **118 a.** The most important verb for denoting ability is the verb *can*. *Can* is a defective verb. (See § 1 c.) It has the past tense form *could*. *Could* is also used with reference to future time (see Conditions, § 119) and is not always suitable for use as the past tense of *can*. The phrase *be able* × *to*-infinitive is used when *can* and *could* are inadequate.

§ **118 b.** *Can* is used to denote ability resulting from physical power or capacity, or from knowledge or skill.

Can you lift this box?
He's over eighty but can still read without glasses.
The child is ten years old but can't read yet.
She can make all her own dresses.
Can you speak Swedish?

§ **118 c.** *Can* is also used to denote ability resulting from circumstances. Used for this purpose, it may be paraphrased 'be in a position to'.

Can you come to the meeting tomorrow? (Are you free to do so? Are you in a position to do so?)
Can you lend me three shillings?

For other uses of *can* to denote possibility, see § 117 f, h. For the use of *can* to indicate permission, see § 115 e.

§ **118 d.** For the important use of *can-could* with verbs of perception, see § 54. *Can* and *could* are used with these verbs to form a kind of substitute for the progressive tenses.

I can hear a dog barking somewhere. (Not: ♠ I am hearing a dog bark somewhere.)
He could smell something burning. (Not: ♠ He was smelling something burning.)

§ **118 e.** *Could* points to past time only when the context or situation shows that the reference is to past time. Thus, when there is another verb in the sentence, and this verb indicates that the time is past, *could* is possible.

The box was so heavy that I couldn't lift it.
I tried to lift the box but couldn't.
She could read Latin when she was twelve!
He could speak German well when he was young, but he has forgotten most of his German now.
He said he couldn't come to the meeting.
He said he was sorry he couldn't lend me the money.

§ 118 f. As *can* has no infinitive, *be able to* is used with *used to*, *seem*, and *appear*.

He used to be able to speak German well.
He seems (to be) quite unable to give up his bad habits.
He seemed (to be) unable to give up his bad habits.

The last two sentences may be recomposed (colloquial style) with *can* and the infinitive *seem*.

He can't seem to give up his bad habits.
He couldn't seem to give up his bad habits.

§ 118 g. When there is no indication of time, *could* is ambiguous because it may be taken as conditional, with reference to present or future time. Thus, *I could help you* is a conditional sentence referring to present or future time. In the sentence *I told him I could help him*, although the main verb is past, the reference may be to help in present or future time.

Alternative constructions for past, present, and future time are illustrated below.

I was (am, shall be) able to help you.
I was not (am not, shall not be) able to help you.
I was (am, shall be) powerless to help you.

§ 118 h. When *could* is used with a perfect infinitive, it indicates a past possibility that was not fulfilled or achieved. See Conditions, § 119 d (iii).

He could easily have done it.
You could have caught the train if you had hurried.

§ 118 i. To indicate the attainment or achievement of something in the past, or failure to do so, the use of the simple past tense is usually satisfactory.

Tom passed the examination.
Harry swam across the river.
Anne didn't catch her train.

Could would be unsatisfactory in these three sentences with reference to past time.

§ **118 j.** The verbs *manage* and *succeed* are used to indicate achievement. The use of *manage* suggests difficulty, need for effort. Note the patterns.

Tom succeeded in passing (*VP 24*) *the examination.*
Harry managed to swim (*VP 2*) *across the river.*
Anne didn't manage to catch the train.
Did you manage to get to the top of the mountain?
How did you manage to get here in time?
I managed to get (succeeded in getting) all my clothes into the suitcase.

§ **118 k.** The examples below illustrate (*a*) achievements, facts, and (*b*) conditions. Note that in (*a*) *could* is not used.

(*a*) *As he was not interrupted, he finished (was able to finish, managed to finish, succeeded in finishing) by evening.*
If he is not interrupted, he can (will be able to) finish by evening.
(*b*) *If people did not interrupt him, he could (would be able to) finish by evening.*
If he had not been interrupted, he could have finished (would have been able to finish) by evening.

A common colloquial alternative is the construction with *get.*

(*a*) *He got it done . . .*
(*b*) *He will get it done . . ., could get it done . . ., could have got it done . . .*

§ **118 l.** When the context does not show that past time is referred to, *could* refers to present or future time.

I could never get all these clothes into that suitcase.

Compare the similar use of *would* for a condition.

I don't think these clothes would go into that suitcase.
A: '*Is there anything I can do to help?*'
B: '*No, thank you, there's nothing you could do.*'

§ 119 a. English verbs have no forms specially inflected for conditional tenses. In place of inflected forms English uses either the tenses of the indicative mood or various auxiliary or modal verbs (e.g. *would, should, could, might*). The subjunctive mood is used in a few cases. See § 119 e below.

There is a great variety of conditional sentences. The two main divisions are: A, those with clauses that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled, and, B, those with clauses in which a theoretical condition is put forward. These are clauses in which the condition is combined with improbability or unreality. Examples:

A. *What can we do if it rains?*
Don't come unless I tell you to come,
We shall go provided the weather is fine.
If you are right, I am wrong.

B. *He would come if he had time.*
You would have succeeded if you had tried harder.
If you were a bird, you could fly.

§ 119 b. Conditional clauses may be introduced by *if* (*even if, if only*), *so long as, suppose* or *supposing* (*that*), *on condition* (*that*), *provided* (*that*), and, for a negative condition, *unless* (which means the same as, but is more emphatic than, *if . . . not*). To introduce a contingency or possibility against which a precaution is needed or advisable *in case* is used.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?
So long as you return the book by Saturday, I will lend it to you with pleasure.
Suppose (*supposing*) *your friends knew how you're behaving here, what would they think?*
He says he'll accept the post provided (*on condition that*) *the salary is satisfactory.*
You'd better take an umbrella with you in case it rains.

Note that the subsidiary clause may either precede or follow the main clause.

If you have enough money, why don't you buy a bicycle?
Why don't you buy a bicycle if you have enough money?

The conditional clause is more prominent or emphatic when it is placed first.

§ **119 c.** Conditional clauses of the A type are sometimes called clauses of open condition or factual condition (contrasted with the theoretical condition in clauses of the B type). The speaker does not declare that the condition will be realized or that it will not be realized. He leaves the question open or unanswered.

What shall we do if it rains?

The speaker here merely puts forward the possibility that it may rain.

In clauses of open condition any of the tenses of the indicative mood, except the future tense with *will-shall*, may be used. (For exceptional uses of *will-would*, see § 119 f, g.) The various auxiliary verbs that are used in conditional clauses of the B type are not used in conditional clauses of the A type. (For exceptional uses of *should*, see § 119 h.)

There are many possible combinations of tenses in the main clause and the subsidiary (or conditional) clause.

(i) Present Tense in both main and subsidiary clauses:

If he comes, what are we to do?
What can we do if he doesn't come?
Provided the weather keeps like this, the farmers have no need to worry about the crops.
It doesn't matter where you put it so long as you make a note of where it is.

(ii) Future Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause. Imperatives and future tense equivalents are also used in the main clause.

If it's ready he will bring it tomorrow.
What shall we do if it rains?

What are we to do if it rains?
What are you going to do if it rains?
Come indoors at once if it rains.
Don't come unless I tell you to come.
I shall take an umbrella in case it rains.
Supposing the enemy wins the war, what will happen to us?

(iii) Future Perfect Tense in the main clause and Present Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If you don't hurry and get there before five o'clock, he will have left the office and gone home.

(iv) Future Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he has finished his work by six o'clock we shall be able to take him with us.
Unless he has done the work to my satisfaction, I shall not pay him for it.

(v) Present Tense in the main clause and Present Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If you've been travelling all night, you probably need a rest.
If you've finished your homework, you can (may) go out and play.

(vi) Future Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If she promised to be here she will certainly come.
If he arrived only yesterday he will probably not leave before Sunday.

(vii) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he arrived only yesterday he is unlikely to leave today.
If you spent the night on the train you probably need a rest.

(viii) Past Tense in the main clause and Past Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If that's what he told you he was telling lies.

(ix) Future Tense in the main clause and Past Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he hadn't come in when you arrived, he won't come in at all this morning.

(x) Present Tense in the main clause and Past Perfect Tense in the subsidiary clause.

If he hadn't left any message when you called, he probably intends to be back before you leave.

§ **119 d.** Conditional clauses of the B type are sometimes called clauses of rejected condition. The condition is one that is contrary to fact, or one that is impossible (e.g. *if you were a bird*), or one that is considered unlikely to be fulfilled or has not yet been fulfilled, or, for past time, one that was not fulfilled.

The auxiliary verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, and *might* are used in this type of conditional sentence. The subjunctive *were* (see § 119 e) is sometimes used in the subsidiary clause.

There are many possible combinations for (i) future time, (ii) present and future time combined, and (iii) past time.

(i) If the supposition refers to future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, *might*, or *ought*. The subsidiary clause may contain either *should* or *were to*.

If he should (*were to*) *hear of your marriage, he would be surprised.*
He wouldn't do it unless you were to order him to do it.
Even if you were to try, you wouldn't be able to do it.
If you should be passing my house, you might return the book you borrowed from me. (Polite request; see § 109 n.)
If you were to start early tomorrow morning, you would (*could, might, ought to, should*) *be at your destination by evening.*

(ii) If the supposition refers to present time, or to both present and future time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would*, *should*, *could*, or *might*, and the subsidiary clause contains a past

tense. This is sometimes called the imaginative use of the past tense. Cf. I wish I *knew*! If only I *knew*!

If I had the money I should pay you.
If he heard of your marriage he would be surprised.
He wouldn't do it unless you ordered him to do it.
Supposing I accepted this offer, what would you say?
He wouldn't be in difficulties if he were not so foolish.
If you went to London you might see the Queen.
If he took his doctor's advice he might soon be well again.
I couldn't promise to be there (even if I wished to be present).
You could do it if you tried.
Supposing my father saw me with you, what might he think?

(iii) If the supposition refers to past time, the main clause contains one of the verbs *would, should, could,* or *might* with a perfect infinitive (if the reference is to consequence in the past) or a present infinitive (if the reference is to consequence in the present). The subsidiary clause contains a past perfect tense.

If he had heard of your marriage he would have been surprised.
I should never have got here in time (I should not be here now) if you had not given me a lift in your car.
If you had been at the meeting I should have seen you.
If you had not told me about it I should (might) never have known (I should still be unaware of) the facts.
You could have done it if you had tried.
If he had taken his doctor's advice he might not have died (he might still be alive).

§ 119 e. The subjunctive form *were* (with a singular subject) is usual in literary English in conditional clauses. It is used in spoken English in the phrase *if I were you*. But *was* is also used in *if*-clauses in spoken English.

When the condition is expressed without a conjunction by means of inversion of the subject and finite verb, *were* (not *was*) is used. This inversion is rare in spoken English.

Were he to see you (= if he were to see you, should he see you), *he would be surprised.*

The negative *wasn't* is often preferred to *weren't* as being more emphatic.

> *If it wasn't that you have been ill, I should consider your work unsatisfactory.*

§ 119 f. It was stated in § 119 c (p. 232) that the future tense with *will* is not used in conditional clauses.

> *If he comes* (not ▲ *if he will come*) *next week, what shall we ask him to do?*

When *will* is not an auxiliary for the future tense but a verb indicating or asking about willingness, it may occur in an *if*-clause. The past tense *would* can be used. Compare:

> *If you help me, we can finish by six.*
> *If you will help me* (*if you will be so kind as to help me*), *we can finish by six.*
> *If you would help me* (*if you would be so kind as to help me*), *we could finish by six.*

§ 119 g. *Will* and *would* are also used (always stressed) meaning 'insist'. (See § 122 f.) In this case, too, they may occur in *if*-clauses.

> *If you ˈwill bet* (if you insist on betting) *on horse-races, you must not complain if you lose your money.*
> *If he ˈwould bet* (if he insisted on betting) *on horse-races in spite of your warnings, he deserved to lose his money.*

§ 119 h. *Should* sometimes means 'ought to'. (See § 114 i.) With this meaning it can be used in *if*-clauses of the A type (i.e. open or factual condition).

> *If your parents disapprove of the plan, you should* (*ought to*) *give it up.*
> *If you shouldn't* (oughtn't to) *do it, don't do it.*

§ 119 i. Conditions are sometimes implied in a relative clause. Note the tenses in these examples.

A country that stopped working would quickly be bankrupt. (If a country stopped working, it would quickly be bankrupt.)
Imagine being married to a woman who ate garlic! (Imagine being married to a woman if she ate garlic.)

§ 119 j. Instead of a sentence with a conditional clause, we sometimes have two co-ordinate clauses. Such sentences are usually proverbial.

Spare the rod and spoil the child. (If a child is spared punishment, it will be spoilt.)
See a pin and let it lie, You'll want a pin before you die. (If you see a pin and do not pick it up, you will one day find yourself in need of a pin.)

PURPOSE AND RESULT

§ 120 a. There are several constructions to express purpose. As purpose is so closely connected with result, both purpose and result are treated in the following sections. See also the article on intention (§ 112).

§ 120 b. In answer to a question asking 'Why?', a *to*-infinitive is often used. *In order to* is rather more formal and more emphatic than *to* alone. When the idea of result is also present the infinitive is often preceded by *so as to.*

I've come here to have a talk with you.
Did you do that to annoy me?
He has gone to England (in order) to perfect his knowledge of English.
I shall go on working late today so as to be free tomorrow. (Purpose and result.)
He stood up so as to see better.
The car is waiting to take you to the station.
Children go to school to learn things.
He works hard in order to (so as to) keep his family in co

§ 120 c. The *to*-infinitive may modify a noun or a noun substitute such as *something, anything, somebody*. (See *NP 1* and § 95.)

She bought a brown coat and skirt and a pair of brown shoes to match (i.e. shoes that were brown so that they would match the coat and skirt).
Take this book to read during the journey (i.e. in order to have a book that you may read).
Give me something to eat.
She wanted someone to take care of.

§ 120 d. When the infinitive phrase modifies the whole sentence, it often has front position.

In order to appreciate poetry, you should read it aloud.
To get the best results, follow the directions carefully.

§ 120 e. Instead of an infinitive phrase it is possible to have a dependent clause.

Cf. { *Children go to school to learn things.*
Children go to school in order that they may learn things.

In the second sentence the pronoun *they* (subject of the dependent clause) stands for *children* (subject of the main clause). In such cases the infinitive construction is usually preferred.

§ 120 f. Clauses of purpose are introduced by *in order that, so that*, and (more formal and literary) *that* alone. *So that* (like *so as to*) often combines the ideas of purpose and result. Several modal verbs are used in such clauses.

§ 120 g. *May, might, should* are often used. In colloquial style *can* and *could* are also used.

I stepped aside so that she might (could) go in.
Let the dog loose so that it can (may) have a run.
We shall grow a hedge round the garden so that the neighbours may not overlook us.
We put up a fence so that the neighbours might (should) not overlook us.
Tie him up so that he can't escape.

Thirty copies of the book were bought so that each boy in the class should have one.
We hid it carefully so that no one should see it.
I did that in order that everyone should be satisfied.

When, in more formal or literary style, *that* is used alone, *may* and *might* are preferred to *can* and *could.*

They died that we might live. (They fought and died so that we might live in safety.)

§ **120 h.** *In order that . . . not* and *so that . . not*, when used to indicate a fear or possibility, are sometimes replaced by *for fear* (*that*), *in case*, or (rare except in literary style) *lest.*

We dared not move for fear the enemy might (*should*) *see us.*
We hid behind some bushes for fear that (*in case*) *passers-by should see us.*

§ **120 i.** Purpose is also expressed by the use of *for* and a gerund. Note the question form 'What . . . for?'

What do you use that tool for?
We use a hammer for knocking in nails.
This tool is used for tightening bolts.

§ **120 j.** Purpose is also indicated by the construction *for* × (pro)-noun × *to*-infinitive.

I stood aside for her to enter (so that she might enter).
He brought some papers for me to sign (in order that I should sign them).
The announcement was put up on the notice-board for everyone to see (so that everyone might, should, could, see it).

§ **120 k.** The patterns *so* × adjective or adverb × *as* × *to*-infinitive, *too* × adjective or adverb (× *for* × (pro)noun) × *to*-infinitive, and adjective or adverb × *enough* × *to*-infinitive are used to indicate consequence or result.

You're not so foolish as (*not foolish enough*) *to believe all you read in the newspapers, I hope.*

§ **121 b.** Adverbial clauses of cause may be introduced by the conjunctions *because*, *as*, *since*, *considering that*, *seeing that*, *now that*, and (in literary or formal style) *in that*, *inasmuch as*.

When *because* is used, the emphasis is on the reason and the subordinate clause usually comes last.

He succeeded because he worked hard.

When a subordinate clause is placed early in the sentence for prominence after *it is*, *it was*, etc., *because* is always used (never *as* or *since*).

It is because he has behaved so badly that he must be punished.
Cf.: *As he has behaved badly, he must be punished.*

When the conjunction is *as*, *since*, *seeing that*, etc., the subordinate clause usually comes first. There is less emphasis on the cause and more emphasis on the result (stated in the main clause). *Since* calls more attention to the cause than *as*.

As he is working hard, he is likely to succeed.
Since I haven't much money, I can't buy it.
Since you insist, I will reconsider the matter.
As I've never met the man, I can't tell you what he looks like.
Seeing that it's raining, you had better stay indoors.
Now that we're here, we may as well see the sights.

§ **121 c.** The co-ordinating conjunction *for* is also used (in written English but rarely in spoken English) to join a statement of result to a statement of cause.

He stood his ground firmly, for he was a brave man.

§ **121 d.** The conjunction *that* may also introduce adverbial clauses of cause. Such clauses usually follow a main clause that is either a negative exclamation or a rhetorical question. The clause gives the reason for what is expressed in the exclamation or question.

I am not a cow that you should expect me to eat grass!
Am I a cow that you should offer me grass?

Do you know him well enough to be able to borrow money from him?
We were so fortunate as (were fortunate enough) to be in London for the Coronation.
I hope he will not be so weak as to yield.
She is too young to understand.
He ran too quickly for me to catch him.

§ **120 l.** Instead of the infinitive constructions illustrated in the last section clauses of result may be used. They are used when the subject of the clause of result is different from that of the main clause. The clause of result may be introduced by *that*, following an adjective, adverb, or noun preceded by *so* or *such*, or by *so that*. An adjective or adverb is preceded by *so*, a noun by *such*.

He was so quick that I couldn't catch him.
He ran so quickly that I couldn't catch him.
He was such a good runner that I couldn't catch him.

When *so that* is used, *that* is sometimes omitted.

He worries about his financial position all day, so that he can't sleep at night.
(Cf. *He worries so much about his financial position that he can't sleep at night.*)
The burglar wore gloves, so (that) there were no finger-prints to be found.

The clause sometimes has front position in colloquial style.

Cf. { *It was so hot (that) I couldn't sleep.*
I couldn't sleep, it was so hot.

CAUSE OR REASON

§ **121 a.** A statement about cause or reason may be made in an independent sentence.

I'm not going out tonight. I'm tired.
She knew she had said something foolish. They all laughed.

It is more usual to place the cause or reason in a subordinate clause.

§ **121 h.** Adverbial clauses of cause may in some cases be replaced by a preposition or prepositional phrase and a gerund.

The boy was scolded because he was late. The child was scolded for being late.
The criminal dared not go out because he was afraid of being recognized by the police. The criminal dared not go out for fear of being recognized by the police.

§ **121 i.** An infinitive construction may also indicate cause.

What a fool I was to have expected him to help me! (I was foolish because I expected him to help me.)
We were glad to have you with us. (We were glad because we had you with us. See § 82 b, *AP 1B*.)

When the infinitive has a subject different from that of the main clause, it is introduced by *for*.

The neighbours must have annoyed you very much for you to speak in that way about them. (As you speak in that way about the neighbours, they must have annoyed you very much.)

§ **121 j.** Cause and reason may, of course, be indicated by the use of the two nouns *cause* and *reason*.

The cause of the accident is still not known.

Reason is used with the preposition *for*. (But note the phrase *by reason of*.)

Cf. { *The reason for his absence was illness.*
      He was absent because he was ill.

Reason is also used with *why*, sometimes dropped.

The reason (*why*) *he was absent was that he was ill.*

The use of *because* instead of *that* after *reason* is considered

§ **121 e.** The conjunction *that* is used to introduce adverbial clauses of cause after adjectives (and past participles) that express emotion. See *AP 3*, § 84 b. The *that* is usually dropped in colloquial style.

I'm glad (*that*) *I came.*
He's sorry (*that*) *he can't come.*
Aren't you thankful (*that*) *your life has been spared?*
We're delighted (*that*) *you can come.*
They're disappointed (*that*) *you couldn't pay them a visit.*

The use of an adverbial *that*-clause after a finite of an intransitive verb expressing an emotion is literary, not colloquial. See § 35 c, Table No. 62, Notes.

I rejoice that they have become friends again.
(Cf., spoken English, *I'm glad they've become friends again.*)

§ **121 f.** Adverbial clauses of cause may sometimes be replaced, usually in written English, seldom in spoken English, by a participial construction.

As he was poor, he could not afford to buy books.
Being poor, he could not afford to buy books.
Mr. Green was unable to come because he had been asked to lecture in Leeds. Mr. Green, having been asked to lecture in Leeds, was unable to come. (or) *Having been asked to lecture in Leeds, Mr. Green was unable to come.*
As the rain had ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one. The rain having ruined her hat, she had to buy a new one.
As there was nothing to do, we went home. There being nothing to do, we went home.

§ **121 g.** When the participle is *being*, it is sometimes dropped.

As this book is written in simple English, it is suitable for beginners. This book, (being) *written in simple English, is suitable for beginners.*
As she was tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early. Tired out after her long walk, she went to bed early.

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The cause of the accident is still not known.

Reason is used with the preposition *for*. (But note the phrase *by reason of*.)

Cf. { *The reason for his absence was illness.*
{ *He was absent because he was ill.*

Reason is also used with *why*, sometimes dropped.

The reason (why) he was absent was that he was ill.

The use of *because* instead of *that* after *reason* is considered

grammatically incorrect but is often found today in the speech and writing of educated people.

The reason for my behaving in this way (*the reason why I behaved in this way*) *is that* (is because) *I considered it necessary to . . .*

The reason . . . is because is a construction that is better avoided in formal speech and writing.

DETERMINATION AND RESOLVE; WILLINGNESS

§ **122 a.** The ideas of determination and resolve can be expressed by the use of the verbs *determine*, *decide*, and *resolve*, the corresponding nouns *determination*, *decision*, and *resolve*, and the phrase *make up one's mind.* The verbs are used in *VP 2* and *11*.

I determined (*resolved, made up my mind*) *to learn German.*
He determined (*resolved, made up his mind*) *that nothing should prevent him from going.*
His determination (*resolve*) *to give his children* (*that his children shall have*) *a good education is most praiseworthy.*

§ **122 b.** The idea of willingness can be expressed by *willing*(*ly*).

He's quite willing to come.
Were they willing to help?
Did they do it willingly?

Note also the phrase *against one's will.*

She was married against her will.

§ **122 c.** The ideas of determination and willingness are more often indicated by the use of the verbs *will-would* and *shall-should.* (For their use to indicate pure future, see § 47.)

§ **122 d.** *Will* is used in the first person to indicate willingness. When stressed it indicates determination.

I will (*I'll*) *lend you the book if you need it.*
I ˈ*will be obeyed* (= I am determined to be obeyed, I insist on being obeyed).
I ˈ*will* (am determined to) *do as I like.*

In the negative, *won't* or the negative adverb is stressed to indicate determination.

I will ˈ*never* (am determined never to) *speak to that man again.*
I ˈ*won't* (am determined not to) *have any backchat from you!*

§ **122 e.** The interrogative *will I* (*we*) (for willingness) is used only as an echo or repetition of a question put to the speaker.

A: '*Will you lend me your pen?*'
B: '*Will I lend you my pen? Of course I will.*'

§ **122 f.** In the second and third persons *will* and *would* in the affirmative and negative may indicate obstinate determination, the *will* or *would* always being stressed.

If you ˈ*will eat so much pastry, you can't complain if you get fat.*
He ˈ*will* (obstinately continues to) *go out without an overcoat although the weather is so cold.*
You ˈ*would go* (insisted on going) *in spite of my warning that it was unwise.*

§ **122 g.** *Will* and *would*, used in the second and third persons, interrogative, ask about willingness.

A: '*Will you sing at the concert tomorrow evening?*'
B: '*Yes, I will.*'

(Cf. *are you singing* and *are you going to sing* for plans and intentions. See § 112 b.)

A: '*Do you think Miss X will* (*would*) *sing at the concert tomorrow evening?*'
B: '*Yes, I think she will* (*would*).'

In polite requests introduced by *will you* the idea of willingness is almost absent. See § 109 k.

§ **122 h.** When *shall* and *shan't* are used in the second and third persons, they may indicate the speaker's determination

concerning the person(s) spoken about. The *shall* or *shan't* is always stressed.

You ˈshall marry him! (I insist on your marrying him.)
They ˈshall do what I tell them to do. (I am determined to make them do it.)

(Cf. the use of *you shall* and *you shan't* to indicate a promise or a threat. See § 110 c.)

§ **122 i.** *Shall* and *should* occur in dependent clauses after verbs and phrases indicating determination or willingness. They are used in all persons.

The officer gave orders (*ordered, requested, etc.*) *that we* (*you, they, all of us, etc.*) *should be well looked after.*
He is determined that you shall obey him.
Is your father willing that you should go abroad?

A *for* × (pro)noun × *to*-infinitive construction is often preferable.

He gave orders for them to be well looked after.
Is your father willing for you to go abroad?

COMPARISONS AND CONTRASTS

§ **123 a.** When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc., that are in some respects equal, we may use the Comparison of Equality. This is formed by the use of the adverb *as* before, and the conjunction *as* after, the adjective or adverb.

Your house is as large as mine.
Does John work as hard as Henry?

When the comparison is negative, the first *as* is often replaced by *so*. *As*, however, is often used, especially when it comes immediately after a verb to which a contracted *not* (*n't*) is joined (as in *isn't, wasn't*). If an adverb such as *quite* occurs between the verb and the adjective or adverb, *so* is more frequent.

Your house is not quite so large as mine.
Your house isn't as (*so*) *large as mine.*
John doesn't work as (*so*) *hard as Henry.*
This box isn't as large (*is not quite so large*) *as that.*

§ **123 b.** When we compare two objects, persons, qualities, degrees, etc., that are in some respects unequal, we may use the comparative degree of the adjective or adverb with *than*. (Exceptions are adjectives taken from Latin: *inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior*, *prior*. These take *to*.)

Your house is larger than mine.
My house is smaller than yours.
John works harder than Henry.
His new book is more interesting than his earlier books.

The Comparison of Inferiority, formed by the use of *less . . . than*, is also used.

The new edition is less expensive than the old edition.
His new novel is less interesting than his earlier ones.

Usually, however, it is preferable to use the Negative Comparison of Equality, thus:

The new edition is not so expensive as the old edition.
His new novel is not so interesting as his earlier ones.

This is particularly the case with short adjectives and adverbs.

Tom is not so tall as his brother. This is preferable to: *Tom is less tall than his brother.*

Mr. Green is not so old as he looks. This is preferable to: *Mr. Green is less old than he looks.*

§ **123 c.** The verb in a subordinate clause of comparison is often dropped. Thus, in the examples below, the verbs in parentheses may be dropped.

Your house is as large as mine (is).
John doesn't work so hard as Henry (does).

Note the possible omissions in the examples below:

I like him more than she (does).
I like him more than (I like) *her*.

In the first of this pair, the pronouns *I* and *she* are contrasted.

In the second, the pronouns *him* and *her* are contrasted. Compare these sentences:

Jane likes me more than she likes Harry.
Jane likes me more than Anne does (or *than Anne likes me*).

In the first of this pair, *me* and *Harry* are contrasted. In the second, *Jane* and *Anne* are contrasted. In speech the words to be contrasted are given prominence by means of tone or stress or a combination of tone and stress. In writing there may be ambiguity. E.g.:

Tom likes me better than Harry.

This should be (in writing) either:

Tom likes me better than he likes Harry or *Tom likes me better than Harry does.*

In colloquial style speakers do not always trouble to choose the correct pronoun when there is no risk of ambiguity.

Is she as tall as me?

Grammatically, *as I* (*am*) is required. Here the fault is not serious. Cf. the use of '*It's me,*' '*That's him* (*her*)', correct enough in colloquial style.

§ **123 d.** In some adverbial clauses of comparison both subject and verb are dropped.

My uncle is better today than (he was) *when I wrote to you last week.*
He is more shy than (he is) *unsocial.*
Some people think much more about their rights than (they do) *about their duties.*

Note, in the next example, the shifting of the subject to the end of the clause, for emphasis.

Nobody did more for education in this country than did the late Mr. Green.

§ **123 e.** Note the use of *should* in clauses of comparison introduced by *than that.*

There is nothing I want more than that you should be happy and contented.
I am ready to do the work myself rather than that you should have to do it.
It is more important that the explanation should be clear than that it should cover every possible exception.

§ **123 f.** Comparison and contrast are also expressed by the use of *the . . . the . . .* with comparatives. This construction indicates a parallel increase or decrease.

The more learned a man is, the more modest he usually is.
The longer we stayed there, the more we liked the place.
The longer he stayed there, the less he liked the people.
The sooner you start, the sooner you'll finish.
The more he read, the less he understood.

§ **123 g.** An infinitive phrase may take the place of a clause.

Nothing pays better than to be honest. (Nothing pays so well as honesty does.)
He knew better than to mention the subject to her.

CONCESSION

§ **124 a.** A simple way of expressing concession is by the use of the conjunction (*al*)*though.*

Although they are brothers, they never write to each other.
Although he has a car, he often uses buses and trams.
Though he's so rich, he has made his money honestly.
Though the restaurant was crowded, we managed to find a table.

§ **124 b.** *Though* may have its place at the end of the sentence which would be the main clause if the sentence were complex. It means about the same as 'nevertheless' or 'all the same'.

He's very rich. He's made his money quite honestly, though.
He didn't tell me where he had been, but I knew it, though. (Although he didn't tell me, I knew where he had been.)

§ 124 c. In place of a construction with *although*, a constructi with *may* is possible. The use of *may* gives a shift of emphas illustrated in the pairs of sentences below.

Although Green is only a farm labourer, he is quite well educat
(Attention is directed chiefly to the second half of t sentence.)

Green may be only a farm labourer, but he is quite well educat
(Here the speaker puts more emphasis on the concessi in the first part of the sentence and then draws attention the fact that, in spite of what has been conceded, Green well educated.)

Although Brown has lived for five years in France, he does n speak French well.

Brown may have lived for five years in France, but he does n speak French well.

Although the children come from poor homes, they are quite w behaved.

The children may come from poor homes, but they are quite w behaved.

In these examples *may* is used to introduce a concession. concede that . . .', 'I grant that . . .') This use of *may* must distinguished from the use of *may* to suggest a possibility. (S § 117 b) E.g.:

He may be (= is perhaps) *in the garden.*

§ 124 d. Compounds in *-ever* are also used to introduce conc sive clauses. The verb in the clause is sometimes, but not alwa used with *may*. In clauses introduced by compounds in *-ever*, t idea of possibility is also present.

However often I try (= although I often try), *I cannot find t answer.*

However often I tried (= although I often tried), *I could n find the answer.*

Whatever faults he may have (= although he perhaps h some faults), *meanness is not one of them.*

Whatever faults he may have had (= although he perhaps had some faults), *meanness was not one of them.*

However often you ring (= although, even if, you ring the bell again and again), *no one will answer.*

However much Tom may admire her (= although he perhaps admires her very much), *he is unlikely to ask her to be his wife.*

Whatever we may think of the wisdom of his plans (= although we may have our doubts about their wisdom), *no one can deny that they are bold and imaginative.*

Whatever happens (*may happen*) (= although there may be failure, disappointment, etc.), *you will always be glad that you tried to do your best.*

§ 124 e. The use of compounds in *-ever* may be compared with the examples below. The construction is used especially with *will*, *would*, *may*, and *might*.

Come what may (= whatever may come, or happen), *we must remain cheerful.*

Try as you will (= however hard you may try), *you won't manage it.*

Say what you will (= whatever you may say), *I shall still trust to my own judgement.*

§ 124 f. The word *matter* is used in a construction that indicates concession. Both the noun and the verb are used.

No matter what I did, no one paid any attention. (Cf. Whatever I did, although I did various things, . . .)

(*It made*) *no matter how hard I tried, I couldn't manage it.* (Cf. Although I tried hard, . . .)

It doesn't matter how hard you try, . . . (Cf. Although you may try very hard, . . .)

§ 124 g. In another type of concessive clause with *as*, an adjective or adverb is given front position for emphasis.

Rich as he is, I don't envy him. (Cf. I don't envy him, although

he is rich. However rich he may be, I don't envy him. No matter how rich he is, I don't envy him.)

Much as we admire Shakespeare's comedies (= although we admire them, however much we may admire them), *we cannot agree that they are superior to the tragedies.*

§ **124 h.** *For all* (= in spite of all) is also used to introduce a concession.

For all his wealth (= although he is wealthy), *he is not happy.*

For all you say (= say what you will about him; whatever you may say; no matter what you say), *I still like him.*

§ **124 i.** *If* (usually *even if*) sometimes replaces *although.* When *if* is used the concession is not so complete or is not so willingly made. The speaker grants something not as a fact but as a possibility.

Even if he did say so, we cannot be sure that he was telling the truth.

Even if it takes me six months, I'm determined to finish the job.

I couldn't be angry with her, even if I tried.

If she is stupid, she is at any rate pleasant to look at.

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